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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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The Present Impasse in Arithmetic	*G. M. Wilson*	65
The Principal's Challenge	*Joy W. Scudder*	73
Objectives and Practices in New York's Program of Rural Supervision	*Ray P. Snyder*	76
Supervisory Practices in California	*Helen Heffernan*	81
A State Program for the Improvement of Teaching in the Rural Schools	*Anna Swenson*	87
Is the Cart Before the Horse in School Music?	*Frank S. Salisbury*	90
Are Pictures an Effective Aid in the Teaching of Geography?	*Mildred Meador*	97
The Clearing House		104
Editorial Comment and Report		115
The Reader's Guide		121

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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

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EDUCATIONAL METHOD

VOLUME XI NOVEMBER, 1931 NUMBER 2

THE PRESENT IMPASSE IN ARITHMETIC

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For a century arithmetic has been a popular subject in the elementary schools, and has consumed more time than any other subject. There was a time not many generations ago when larger boys in the district schools spent half to two-thirds of their time on arithmetic. This time has been reduced as other subjects have come into the curriculum. The study by Paine in 1905 showed that in the ten largest cities of our country arithmetic was still consuming one-sixth of all school time. The study by Holmes in 1914, in which fifty cities were included, showed practically the same figure—one-sixth of all school time on arithmetic. It should be noted, however, that these reports were from the city schools where a varied program and adequate supervision were the rule. Without doubt at those dates in the schools of the smaller towns and of the rural districts arithmetic was receiving a much larger percentage of the school time.

The war had an effect in reducing the time on arithmetic, as shown in the study by Ayer. It is probable that this reduction in time in arithmetic as shown by Ayer's study was largely due to the wartime emphasis upon health, food production, back-of-the-line morale, and kindred subjects. More recently, school activities and playground work have come in for a reasonable share of the school time. This work has further lessened the allotment to arithmetic and the rest of the three R's.

At the present time, there is evident confusion among supervisors and executives on the subject of arithmetic and the tendencies which should be encouraged. This confusion is partly due to recent reactionary reports and discussions; it may be explained in detail in connection with such headings as "General Viewpoint," "Drill," "Written Problems," etc.

GENERAL VIEWPOINT

There is a definite conflict in general viewpoint between those holding to the social utility theory and those holding to the mental discipline theory. Of course no one at the present time will exactly claim to support the mental discipline theory. However, if they do support that theory they do, even if they try to put it under the cloak of another name, such as "social psychology" or "development of powers."

Mental discipline is the fortification behind which the supporters of useless material always retreat. "It is the last bulwark of a useless subject." The principle of for-

mal discipline is particularly acceptable to the academic mind as it permits decisions without the requirement of an objective check on the usefulness of the material chosen.

Social utility as a criterion for the selection of subject matter has made progress slowly. Rousseau affirmed it in essence. Great teachers in all times have more or less made use of the principle. In our own country Dewey has been chief advocate of the principle of social utility for the choosing of subject matter. This principle insists that subject matter chosen shall be fundamentally useful from the standpoint of the needs of society. Interpreted in terms of child life, it means that the child shall see and understand reasonably well the usefulness of what he is learning. And this means that the child is able to organize into his own thinking and living the things upon which he is working in school. Broadly interpreted, the principle that school topics and subjects shall be useful in society means, on the one hand, that they shall not exceed adult usage, and, on the other hand, that they shall be adapted to the present thinking and understanding of the child.

Obviously, to choose subject matter on the basis of social utility requires a very comprehensive objective scheme of checking. The curriculum maker must know what society is demanding. It also requires a knowledge of child psychology, and particularly the study of the environment, neighborhood contacts, and interests of the child. This is the proper psychology on which to base curriculum making—an intimate child psychology applied to the particular children that are being taught.

The mental disciplinists have opposed the principle of social utility with all their forces. One of the latest ruses among mental disciplinists in the field of elementary mathematics has been to abandon argument and begin to call names. Because the principle of social utility eliminates some of the traditional and useless processes that formerly appeared in the textbooks, the mental disciplinists have applied the term "restrictionists." As pointed out by Horn at the Atlantic City meeting, these people forget that the principle of social utility operates both ways, first, to eliminate the useless; second, to include the useful material meeting the needs of present society. In fact, the principle has operated to expand the curriculum very much more than it has operated to restrict the curriculum. This is evident in all grades of schools. In the secondary field the old disciplinists were content with the meager offerings of the classical program. The principle of social utility, however, has operated, not to eliminate these subjects, but to restrict them to the few who really find value in them. And, on the other hand, it has operated greatly to expand the curriculum to include not only literature in the vernacular, but also science, history, geology, civics, health, domestic science, shop work, and even such fields as the playground and the assembly. In fact, it has tended to broaden the curriculum sufficiently to meet the growing needs of children in the complicated society of today. The curricula of elementary schools and universities have likewise been enriched and extended.

The principle of mental discipline asks, in general, not "Does a child understand?" or "Are the child's needs or the needs of society met?" but rather, "Is this difficult?" "Is it logically organized?" "Does it require concentration?" and frequently even the question, "Is it annoying to the child?" The general thought appears to be, as judged by resulting practice, that the more difficult, annoying, abstract, and useless the material the better the discipline.

The principle of social utility operates in

an exactly opposite manner. Let me repeat, that it asks for material useful to present-day adult society, adapted to the interests and needs of the child—material which can enter actively into the daily life and thinking of the individual.

The advocates of social utility have usually recognized the fact that in the best selection possible some children will not be appealed to. They ask, therefore, for the very best teaching in order that the best discipline may be secured out of what is done. But the effort to secure discipline is quite the other way about. It denies the value of discipline from work not understood and not liked. It insists that the best discipline in the long run comes when there is most interest, best understanding, and when use is most apparent and immediate. In other words, it is the discipline of a satisfied and integrated mind. It questions the disciplinary value of an annoyed, confused, and harassed mental condition.

In this connection, it is interesting to note the very considerable part of the *Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society*, Part I, which was used in an attempt to break down the principle of social utility and establish in its place the principle of mental discipline as a basis for work in arithmetic. This report is one of the factors leading to the present confusion in arithmetic.

DRILL

The mental disciplinists apparently consider that drill is valuable in itself. It is not necessary to know in advance that it is useful. The general scheme of procedure is, *first*, to go to extreme limits; *second*, to determine the steps on the basis of logical analysis; *third*, to provide for review on the basis of difficulty; *fourth*, to keep on grinding regardless of the interests of the child or the needs of society. This may be a little severe, but in sum it represents the main contentions with reference to drill as set forth in the *Twenty-ninth Yearbook* above referred to. It provides that definite drill should begin in the first grade and continue throughout the grades.

The principle of social utility would concern itself first with fixing reasonable limits for drill. If, for instance, it should be found through checking adult usage that no cases of addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division of compound numbers actually occur, then it would say that it would be folly to have the child drill upon the application of the four fundamental processes to compound numbers. It would say, likewise, if adult usage revealed little or no reduction ascending or descending in denominate numbers, that these should be omitted from the drill work of the schools. The principle of social utility would go further. It would say that, if problems in addition as solved by adults seldom or never go up to nine or ten addends, then such examples should seldom or never come into the drill work of children, or, if so, they should come in in such a way as to conform to the main requirements of adult usage. It would say also that if ninety per cent of all work with fractions among adults occurs with the five simplest fractions (½, ¾, ¼, ⅔, and ⅓), then the main drill should be there, and that complicated fractions with such denominators as 23, 27, 128, 420, etc., should not come into the systematic drill work in fractions. If such fractions come into the work at all, it should be in such manner as to give acquaintance, without annoyance and useless manipulation.

The principle of social utility applied to the systematization of drill would also proceed very differently. The mental disciplinists consider that a capable man can sit at his desk and determine the drill steps. The principle of social utility properly applied relies not upon the logic of numbers

but upon the needs of the child. It asks, therefore, with reference to any process, that the actual mistakes made by children shall be used as the basis for determining the steps in teaching. In actual practice this means a much simplified situation, partly no doubt because the limits have first been fixed on a reasonable basis.

Those who rely upon the principle of social utility have found that reviews and checks are much better accomplished when the needs of the child are first considered. In other words, instead of determining in advance what shall be reviewed and just how often, on the basis of average performance, it is much better to inventory the particular child and thus determine accurately his specific needs. This procedure applied in the classroom means that some children will not need to review certain phases of subtraction, for instance. It will mean, in any case, that different errors are made, and that each child shall apply his effort in line with his own particular needs.

At this point it is well to indicate the distinction between the general survey tests in arithmetic and the inventory tests. The general survey tests have been used for classification purposes with a fair degree of success. They have little or no value as a basis for teaching. For this latter purpose what is needed is comprehensive inventory tests. These tests applied to the fundamental processes should check every needed fact and every process difficulty, thus revealing in detail the needs of every child. It is interesting to note in this connection that where reasonable limits for drill have been fixed, the drill steps arranged on the basis of errors made by children, and a complete system of inventory checks used, it has been possible to secure a percentage of accuracy formerly considered impossible. The old standards of sixty to eighty per cent of accuracy, for instance, in addition have been replaced by new standards approximating one hundred per cent. These results have been secured in all of the four fundamental processes.[1]

It should be noted in passing that a new principle in drill work, namely, that *meaning should precede drill* is tending to defer systematic drill until the second or even the third grade. The principle that meaning should come first is obviously a corollary or detail under the general principle of social utility.

WRITTEN PROBLEMS

Careful study of the written problem work often found in textbooks reveals the startling fact that there has been no essential change in a century. Colburn, in one of the first complete arithmetics developed in America, gave us the pattern of the written problem in the form of a brief paragraph. These paragraphs, or problems, Colburn sought to make practical in that the data given should conform to actual conditions in life. With this general principle as a basis, he tried to cover as nearly as possible all of the transactions that might occur in adult life—at any rate, all of the common ones. He, therefore, spread widely, reaching farm, store, factory, trade, transportation, household expenses, etc. Ray, another great arithmetician, followed the same general lines as Colburn, in his written problem work. The old Hamilton series followed directly in the wake of Ray and Colburn. Recent writers of arithmetics have in general not varied from the old Colburn-Ray-Hamilton pattern.

It is true that some questions have been raised with reference to the improvement of written problem work. Thorndike, for instance, suggests that instead of a terse, matter-of-fact statement consisting of two or three lines, we should put interest into the problem by making the story more com-

[1] See Wilson, G. M., "New Standards in Arithmetic," *Journal of Educational Research*, 22: 351-360, December, 1930.

plete, and extending it to seven or eight lines, for example. Merton, Buckingham, Osburn, and others have in general accepted the Thorndike suggestion and have made some actual studies of what children do when confronted by written problems with the spread of the usual modern textbook. They have found that children do not attend carefully and do not read well, and that therefore the scores can be improved by training in reading. They have found considerable error in actual manipulation of figures, thus leading to the conclusion that scores can be improved by drill in the fundamental processes. The big revelation, however, that two-thirds of all errors occur *because the children do not know what it is all about* has, as yet, found no solution in textbook form.

In other words, we need not only a new pattern but also a new principle. The new principle needed is closely related to the principle of social utility. It grows out of social utility and child psychology. The principle is that, in written problem work as in drill, *meaning should come first.* This principle, properly applied, will provide for personal interest and motivation.

The principle of *meaning first* in written problem work has not been arrived at quickly. The studies by Merton, Buckingham, Osburn *et al* suggest the principle negatively. For the last few years, in working with students and teachers in Boston University and in the public schools round about Boston, through coöperators, we have discovered, first, that the usual type of written problem work is not only ineffectual but is actually detrimental. It drills children in doing something which they do not understand, and therefore immunes them to the use of common sense and judgment. In fact, even teachers and graduate students of maturity, I find, are willing to pay thirty cents a pound for two-year-old baby beef with an average weight of 2500 pounds. They do not hesitate to sell in November shoats that were farrowed in March, using such weights as 400 or 450 pounds apiece. They are willing to plant corn in rows six feet apart or two feet apart with equal indifference. In other words, they are willing to go forward to the solution of a problem which is not based upon common sense or judgment, and that undoubtedly violates the first principle of successful business. In the long run, *arithmetic is business, not mental discipline*; and number, for the child or average adult, is simply a tool, just as writing, spelling, and reading are tools. Number as social psychology or a philosophy of life has no place in the elementary grades.

Second, we discovered that it is possible to organize the written problem work in arithmetic on an entirely different basis, namely, upon the experience and understanding, by the children, of actual business situations. An eighth grade teacher in New Bedford, Massachusetts, instead of teaching commission and brokerage in the usual way, sent her children into the textile industry, into the brokers' offices, and finally into every detail of buying cotton, shipping it to New Bedford, and transforming it into cloth. These children's fathers and mothers were workers in the mills. The children were interested. At the close of the work on this particular problem, the teacher, a woman of some twenty years of experience, confided to me that she had had a better time and had learned more than any year since she started her teaching work. Not only that, but instead of the usual grind, annoyance, burden, and failure, she had interest, a keen understanding, and an entirely new spirit with reference to the arithmetic work.

A sixth grade teacher in Lynn took the family budget as the basis for her work in written problems for the entire year.

She and the children became so interested and so fascinated that it was an entirely different school from any that she had ever conducted before, although she likewise had taught for eighteen or twenty years. Questions of rent, questions of buying an automobile, economy in buying food, the buying of clothing, life insurance, fire insurance, what children can do to help in the home, having smaller children wear out clothes which older children have outgrown—these and many other interesting details became a part of the problem work. Objective conditions were investigated and understood by the children. Shall we have a radio? Shall we put in an iceless refrigerator? These questions offered the best opportunities for figuring in the world, with one hundred per cent interest and understanding.

Illustrations might be multiplied under this second point. The general principle of meaning first has been set forth by the writer more fully elsewhere.[2] We need this new principle and new procedure in the written problem work in arithmetic. The mental disciplinists have not seen this. Tradition is strong. There is here a real work to do, first among supervisors and principals, next among teachers, finally among publishers. It is possible to transform the written problem work from a useless grind to a functionally useful product.

Children should not be asked to figure on hogs unless they know something about hogs. In other words, have children do in school what everyone does in life, namely, confine figuring to situations where experience gives an adequate basis for thinking. If an adult were to go around asking for figuring situations quite beyond his understanding, we should be inclined to recommend the insane asylum for him. For instance, he lives in the city. He drives out into the country. He says to a farmer, "I want to figure on cattle. Give me a problem." The farmer, being obliging, says, "Well, sir, I will give you a problem. I have twelve cows in my dairy herd. Each cow gives twelve gallons of milk a day. The milk is fifty per cent cream. I take my cream to the creamery. They pay me seventy-five cents a pound for butter fat. How much do I make a week from my herd?" If the man figured out on the basis of the data given, he would have a result many, many times the truth. Herds do not average twelve gallons of milk a day per cow. Milk does not average fifty per cent cream. Butter fat does not bring seventy-five cents a pound. Furthermore, there would be the expense of labor, the expense of feed, taxes, insurance, etc. The man has figured without sense or judgment. He comes out with a silly answer. If that is arithmetic, we certainly need less of it.

And yet, going back to our texts, even the most recent ones, we find for instance, that a man has a gasoline tank on his car that holds twenty gallons. At present, it has in it four gallons, three quarts, three pints, and three gills. He goes to the gas station and has it filled and expects to pay for it in terms of gallons, quarts, pints, and gills. Now, in actual life, if that should occur, we would consider that there was something wrong with the man. Yet children are asked to do that in school.

In another text we find that a butcher buys a hog weighing 250 pounds at eight cents a pound. He sells 32 pounds of ham at 36 cents a pound; 30 pounds of side meat at 30 cents a pound; 34 pounds of shoulder at 20 cents a pound; the head for 75 cents; and 10 pounds of lard at 20 cents a pound. His profit is asked for. Suppose the child figures through on the basis of the data given. He still doesn't know the profit, because there is the expense of

[2] *What Arithmetic Shall We Teach?* Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929.

butchering, there is the shop to keep up. There is the expense of lights, telephone, insurance, etc. In other words, the average textbook problem is perfectly useless—useless in the first place because the child doesn't have any basis for thinking in the field covered, and, in the second place, because insufficient data are given. Obviously we need a new deal in the written problem work, including realization of the principle of "meaning first."

WHAT TEXTBOOK?

Everywhere I go, I meet the question, "What textbook shall we adopt?" I find difficulty in answering. Ten years after the appearance of the studies on social and business usage of arithmetic, practically all companies have put out new texts in arithmetic. All of these texts show improvement in one respect, namely, the omission of some processes and details beyond common social and business usage. There has been that gain. There has also been a little gain in systematization of drill.

But careful analysis shows that omission of the useless has not gone far enough; the concept of one hundred per cent drill results has not been grasped; the written problem work is a century behind; and fundamental principles of curriculum and teaching have for the most part not been realized.

Undoubtedly formalism — meaningless, unmotivated procedure — constitutes the fundamental difficulty. This is not easily remedied through the textbook. It requires fundamental training and viewpoint on the part of supervisor and teachers. Any present text should be used merely as a book of reference, not as a basis for continuous and regular daily assignment. The teacher must know the purposes of her work and be prepared to accomplish these purposes.

No beginner's book in numbers has met the requirements of the informal approach.

SUMMARY

In sum, we need to abandon the principle of mental discipline as a criterion for the selection of subject matter, replacing it by the principle of social utility and its corollary, interest and understanding by the child.

We need in drill realization of the principle that meaning should come first. This principle will defer systematic drill until the child really feels the need for it, and is thoroughly motivated to understand it. It will limit drill to the evident needs of adult society. It will secure systematization on the basis of pupil needs rather than the logical thinking of an expert. It will provide, instead of the usual reviews, inventory checks to reveal individual needs.

In written problem work we need to abandon old patterns, possibly entirely abandon the textbook. In fact, the wise procedure would be to omit present textbook written problems and replace with life situations worked out by teacher and pupils combined. These situations would be based directly upon the business of the community. This in the long run will secure sense and judgment and the type of thinking which can be applied to any situation actually met in later life.

These principles, combined with the principles of individualization and motivation, will give us a new spirit and better results in the teaching of arithmetic. A new spirit will grow out of understanding and interest. The better results will grow partly out of better understanding and interest and partly out of the real game of mastery, which is easily accepted by children when meaning and motivation precede systematic drill.

PRESENT CONFUSION

Several causes have contributed to the present confusion in arithmetic. The

Twenty-ninth Yearbook, with its emphasis upon mental discipline, has been noted above as one cause. The dissenting speeches of the "five-minute men" at Atlantic City were not published.

A second cause is the disappointing character of the newer texts in arithmetic. Much was promised; little has been accomplished.

Third, many teachers are so lacking in basic experience and viewpoint that they do not properly carry out plans which progressive supervisors have developed. This is discouraging, and it is confusing to those who go to observe work giving promise of progress.

Fourth, there has been too much emphasis in recent discussions on traditional aims, including mastery of a "number system." Arithmetic must be reduced to a tool of thought for the understanding of business and trade. This will rid arithmetic of its formal aspects. It calls for the functional, objective viewpoint. It offers a challenge to any wide-awake teacher.

In presenting this brief summary of the present situation, I feel confident that I have merely summarized the thinking of progressive supervisors the country over. In some cases it may clarify the thinking of those who have been confused. It may encourage those working for further progress. There is much work ahead. Arithmetic is still the tyrant of the schools. This need not be so. Tyranny can be replaced by democracy, based, as democracy always is, upon meaning first and adaptation to really useful purposes.

THE PRINCIPAL'S CHALLENGE

JOY W. SCUDDER

Principal, Madison Junior High School, Seattle, Washington

This year will see the "making" or "breaking" of many school administrators. Seldom in the history of education has there been a greater need for sane, tactful, and effective leadership. The economic depression has not only had its effect upon business organizations, it has fallen as well with severity upon educational systems throughout the country. In many places teachers' salaries have been lowered, building programs have been withheld, the teaching force has been pruned, orders for additional equipment retracted, supervisors dispensed with, and class enrollment increased, all in an attempt to meet in some measure the stress and strain of the present day. These changes cannot take place successfully unless they are counterbalanced by more thoughtful administration and keener direction of school affairs. This responsibility must fall largely upon the shoulders of every school principal.

The public at large has not lost its faith in education. It desires and will always endeavor to give to every child through its schools an opportunity for advancement and learning. The retrenchment policy, however, has fallen with sledgehammer blows upon many homes within this vast group with the resultant outcome often of worry, sickness, and want. People struggling under these conditions are apt to be sensitive, critical, and open to misunderstandings regarding school procedure. This is not only true of parents, it is equally true of the child who, sensing the lack of normal family life, becomes imbued with emotional conflicts and fails properly to adjust himself to his school environment.

If our schools are to warrant the support of a sympathetic public, they must secure it through their ability to aid and guide pupils. No greater challenge looms upon the horizon than does this one of careful pupil guidance, and the principal who would be successful in his responsibilities should plan a constructive program whose aim is to aid the adjustment of the individual child.

This may be accomplished through three lines of endeavor: first, through the principal's aims as an administrator; second, through his force as an educational leader; and, third, through his ability to coördinate all guidance agencies within the building. The principal for the coming year must be one fortified with confidence, poise, and good generalship. He must know what he desires to accomplish in the way of guidance and set his house in order to achieve it. He must expect reverses and emergencies and yet, through all, never lose sight of his purpose to render to every individual child an opportunity to worthwhile advancement. He should consider the following items in attempting to meet his responsibilities:

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

The Classification of Pupils Must Be Given Greater Study and Consideration. With the increased enrollment per teacher and the approach toward crowded classroom conditions come additional responsibilities which must be borne by teachers as well as by the principal. A carefully thought out classification for the grouping of pupils which will offer the largest chance for happy work and accomplish-

ment will do much to offset the added burden of greater numbers. Pupils rightly placed are far more susceptible to guidance forces than those in rooms where tension and disorder are experienced. The principal, through knowledge of his pupils, can do much to improve the working as well as the guidance possibilities within his building if he will give time and study to the better placement of pupils within the school.

Start to Build Guidance Forces Immediately. This comes through leadership. The quicker these forces are brought into contact with children the more rapid will be the returns, measured in terms of better conduct and finer citizenship. Teacher talents are pronounced and varied. The principal, knowing these, should bend every effort to place members of his staff in positions where talent and personality may have the most wholesome influence upon the child life in the school. Teachers happily placed exert, also, a powerful influence upon pupils. They take a greater interest in subject matter, they enter wholeheartedly into the promotion of the building program, and they quickly interpret the spirit of personal service to those who come in direct contact with them.

Give Greater Attention to the Better Utilization of the Physical Possibilities of the School. The distribution of special subjects to certain teachers, the scheduling of classes to rooms offering the best setting for the subject matter, such as science, art, music, reading, etc.; the planning for lunch periods where congestion will be minimized; the freeing of the assembly for gatherings; the releasing of the counselor from class work at the most advantageous periods for guidance service; the proper assignment of classes to the library, whereby a maximum use of this phase of school activity may be most effective; these things all constitute important items in the smooth running of a school and all play a definite part in a guidance program affecting children enrolled. This responsibility belongs to the principal of the school and constitutes one of the most important administrative duties of his position in the field of guidance and school administration.

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Efficient Leadership is Demanded. Business organizations rise or fall in relation to the leadership employed. Our public schools must meet this same standard of measurement. As the principal, so is the school. If he is dynamic, progressive, and forceful in his interpretation of the needs for guidance, the returns will be fruitful and constructive. Through enthusiasm and interest in those under his care a wider possibility of service to others may be gained.

More Sympathetic Supervision of Subject Matter Must Be Planned. The larger the class enrollment the greater is the need for better teaching methods. Through kindly interest and encouragement the principal must stimulate his teachers to employ the best teaching means and devices so that child interest in the subjects taught will be real and genuine. Aside from this, an attempt must be made to broaden the outlook of the teacher so that her personality may be of greater service in helping to adjust individual pupils to a better realization of social needs.

Help the Failing Teacher. The guidance responsibility is as necessary in this field as it is to the poorly adjusted child. Success comes more readily through helpful suggestions rather than through criticism and condemnation. Strive to build up at all times, not to tear down.

Encourage Community Support. This will be accomplished by the principal's ability to interpret to parents the purposes, ideals, and standards of the school. Par-

ent-teacher meetings, Educational Week, Dad's Night, assemblies, etc., all offer splendid opportunities. Human interest items taken from school life, exhibits, plays and musicals have a fascination for the public and quickly promote and engender loyalty and pride toward the school and its achievements. This pride within the parent is often reflected through the home to the child. The pupil's attitude toward school life is improved in this manner, thus creating a finer working spirit and a stronger morale within the school.

COÖRDINATOR OF AGENCIES

Broaden the Teachers' View of the Guidance Possibilities Within the Building. Music, art, reading, science, shops, athletics, orchestra, intramural games, library, clubs, offer many ways and means of stimulating pupil interest and talents. Teachers should know the value of these various openings, become familiar with them, and learn the importance of their guidance possibilities to the maladjusted child.

A Closer Unification of Purposes and Ideas Must Be Accomplished. This may be brought about by bringing all forces into a proper relationship regarding educational and guidance possibilities.

Social science teachers need to tie up their work with the teaching of English. Teachers of similar subjects should have some understanding as to the central tendencies of the course of study needed in each class and work should be flexible enough in all classes so that it may be adjusted to various ability groups. Shop teachers, for the most part tradesmen, should sense the values of academic subjects aside from the trade training angle. Work for boys' and girls' classes in mathematics should be made as practical as possible. Reading teachers as well as social science teachers should realize the value of the library and its contribution to their work. Art should find its influence in all classes in the written work, in the appearance of rooms, and in the exhibits of the various vocational fields. Literature and composition should find their power reflected in the school paper as well as in daily general work; science, in the realm of everyday life; club activities, in school spirit and finer conduct; assembly programs, through an intensive and deeper meaning of school values; and teacher development through a vision of service to others rather than self. It is this responsibility of bringing all forces together into a constructive guidance program which will add materially to the amount of success achieved.

The challenge outlined above is a real and vital one calling for the very best effort which a principal may have to give. Personality traits of optimism, loyalty, poise, integrity, kindness, sympathetic understanding, breadth of vision, sense of humor, generosity, and judgment, backed up with a supply of good common sense, will need to be constantly in the foreground. The success of accomplishment will be measured through pupil growth in achievement, in the attitude toward work and play, and in the quality of child adjustment made. Progress may also be interpreted through teacher attitude toward pupils, class work, fellow teachers, and parents from the community. The ability to pull together in one large family group can be sensed and felt and it is this wholesome spirit of common interest centered upon the development of the child toward which the principal must work. It will call for a live, active program, coupled with much thought and careful planning, and one which will test the mettle of every alert and progressive thinking administrator. In meeting the challenge this year there will be no place for the "office sitting" type of principal.

OBJECTIVES AND PRACTICES IN NEW YORK'S PROGRAM OF RURAL SUPERVISION[1]

RAY P. SNYDER

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In New York State we try to be helped and to be helpful by exchanging experiences with our associates in rural education. It is understood that no one who tells frankly how he is attacking his problems will be charged with boasting. This is the spirit in which this paper is presented. We want to help and to be helped.

New York is an old state. It has large cities. By the federal census it is fifth in rural population. Its farms and its population vary in both quality and type. It is a state of varied rural interests and varying attitudes, from the traditional "stay as we are's" to the "instant world reformers." In recent years, rurally speaking, there has been a marked swing toward a sane educational progressiveness.

It is a state of plains, mountains and valleys, of irregular townships and counties, cold in winter, hot in summer. It has a network of paved roads, but it also has sections that at times are either snowbound or mud-bound. Territorially it is a typical eastern state.

New York is divided into more than eight thousand school districts. Of this number about 6400 are one-teacher districts. All schools in districts of less than 4500 population are rural schools. They vary in size from one teacher to thirty or forty teachers. There are 208 district superintendents; each superintendent is appointed by a board of school directors for a term of five years, and each supervises approximately 50 schools. At present there are 48 women and 160 men superintendents.

The Rural Education Bureau of the State Department of Education, created in 1923, consists of the chief, three associates, a secretary, and a limited force of clerks and stenographers. It is obvious that, with a small force to deal with both administration and supervision, the Bureau must develop methods and techniques of indirect rather than direct supervision. We have determined that our procedures shall be democratic, that they shall be directed to the improvement of the school situation, and that they shall not be merely inspectional, resulting in a fine file of reports that mean nothing.

The objectives of New York State's program of rural supervision may be stated briefly, as follows:

1. Building up among superintendents a professional consciousness and helping them to find effective methods of supervision of instruction.
2. Preparing, with the help of teachers and superintendents, bulletins and other material directly useful to the teachers of small schools in their daily work of teaching children.
3. Assisting superintendents to organize and conduct teachers' conferences, that such conferences may result in the improvement of classroom instruction.
4. Coöperating with superintendents and teachers in limited areas in organizing and conducting special projects for research and experimentation in supervision, the procedures, techniques, and outcomes to be summarized and forwarded to all superintendents and supervisors.

[1] An address before the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction at Los Angeles, June 30, 1931.

5. Creating interest among rural people for units of taxation and administration larger than the district unit and of adequate size to provide good elementary and good junior and senior high school facilities. This implies a realization on the part of rural people that better schools, including better supervision, better teachers, better buildings, better equipment, and broader curriculums, depend on right organization.
6. Systematizing and reducing clerical duties required of district superintendents in order that more time may be given to supervision.
7. Coördinating department activities in the rural field in order that maximum use in supervision may be made of department specialists.

PROCEDURES IN CARRYING OUT OBJECTIVES

Objective 1 has been realized in large measure through an annual regional conference program. Five such conferences are held each year under the supervision of the Rural Education Bureau, at convenient points throughout the state. It is attempted to make these meetings strictly professional improvement conferences, and so to organize the programs that the best supervisory practices of the several superintendents are brought up for discussion. Individuals who are trained and experienced in supervisory practices conduct the discussions in coöperation with district superintendents. In one series of conferences a study of district superintendents' activities was undertaken under the direction of Dr. M. G. Nelson, Professor of Education in the New York State College for Teachers. A report of this study was made the next year. The results indicated to superintendents the need of a balanced program of activities. It also pointed out to each the weak spots in his program of supervision.

The college summer sessions and special short courses also have been potent factors in helping to realize this objective. In connection with the summer session at Cornell University for the past three years, the University's Department of Rural Education has coöperated with our Bureau in offering a special unit course of two weeks for those superintendents who are unable to attend the full six weeks' session. This special unit course carries two credits. The number in attendance has varied from 20 to 45.

Objective 2. Soon after the Rural Educational Bureau was organized a rural school syllabus committee was appointed. The chairman of this committee is one of the normal school principals of the state; the other members are representative district superintendents, training class instructors, and teachers. Miss Helen Hay Heyl, one of my associates, is adviser to the committee and editor of the material.

Heretofore syllabuses and suggestions sent out by the State Department have seemed to be based on the theory that all teachers work in cities and large villages, and that each is the teacher of a single grade of pupils. Although the aims of rural education do not differ from those of urban education, the environment in which rural and city teachers work and the conditions under which they work differ greatly. The function of this committee, therefore, is to prepare material that will be specifically and directly helpful to the rural teacher, and particularly the teacher of the small school.

It is being printed in a series of five separate handbooks or units, as follows: The English Group, Social Studies Group, Arts Group, Science Group, Arithmetic. A handbook will also be prepared on Rural School Organization. When the work is completed, it is planned to revise the material and print it in a single volume.

Handbook I is now in the hands of the teachers. Handbook II and the other sections will follow in the near future.

Objective 3. Bulletins of suggestions are prepared for the guidance of superintendents in planning conferences for teachers. Illustrative material of typical and useful conference programs taken from the field is included. All programs of proposed conferences are submitted to the Rural Education Bureau for approval. The aim is to make each conference program purposeful by (a) a definite and specific objective in the conference itself, and (b) the drawing of material from the actual practices in the schools and the participation of teachers in the discussions that take place. Emphasis has been placed on the organization of group conferences, by towns or otherwise, for teachers who have common interests and common problems. At many of the group conferences teachers participate in discussions, in demonstration teaching, and in describing their procedures and methods to other teachers.

Objective 4. The means of realizing this objective may be illustrated by the project carried out the past year by two superintendents, under the direction of Miss Heyl.

The major objectives for the year's work were selected in conference early in the school year. The project determined upon was to concentrate upon the six objectives of elementary education, with special emphasis upon two: (a) development of desirable individual aptitudes, and (b) development of appreciations, especially in fields of art, music, and social relationships.

The first conference of teachers was held in September. The plan was presented by the state supervisor and by selected teachers. Each teacher received an outline of suggestions and materials. A demonstration lesson in appreciation of literature was taught by the school library extension specialist. A reading list was selected for the year on the topics being considered. Following up this conference, the state supervisor, through the district superintendents, sent a letter to every teacher. The district superintendents made a series of visits to each school, observed with the objectives in mind, and checked on the work being done.

In November the state supervisor spent one week in the field visiting schools and conducting group meetings. At the meetings teachers reported on their activities. A discussion was held on the books being studied, and an illustrated talk on the appreciation of beauty in environment was given by the state supervisor. Slides were used to show attractive and unattractive school buildings, grounds and scenes in Lewis County. Masterpieces of landscapes were also shown. Principles of art were reviewed and outlined. At the close of the conference teachers were organized into study groups, with conveniently located high school principals acting as chairmen. These conferences were followed up in a manner similar to the former conference.

In January the state supervisor again visited the territory as consultant to the chairmen principals, who had analyzed the difficulties each group of teachers was encountering.

In the spring a large general conference was held. Each group chairman brought in all reports from his group. These were mimeographed in advance of the meeting and distributed so that each teacher received a complete set. Each chairman briefly outlined the work of his group and called on several teachers to tell what they had accomplished. Children demonstrated units of work; there was an exhibit of work on display; the state supervisor summarized and analyzed the year's work; and practical projects for next year were considered. Teachers participated freely in the discussions.

Briefly, the outcomes were:

In creative fields

(a) Original poetry of high grade

(b) Original music and art work
(c) Many beautiful and useful handicraft articles

In fields of appreciation

(a) Aroused interest in environment
(b) Beautiful classrooms which pupils had decorated
(c) Many attractive library corners
(d) Better music being played and understood
(e) Improved taste in selection of pictures, blending of colors, etc.
(f) Higher standards in types of movies enjoyed
(g) Pronounced improvement in all scholastic work as measured by standard tests
(h) Marked improvement in health conditions
(i) Finer social relationship practiced

A summary of the procedures and outcomes is now under preparation and will be mailed soon to all district superintendents.

Under such a plan an office with a limited number of workers is able to extend itself into all parts of the state much more effectively than is possible when a few workers travel about the state inspecting a few schools here and there and staying nowhere long enough to be very helpful.

Objective 5. Until recently centralization has moved slowly in New York. The movement was given impetus in 1925 by an amendment to the central school law, which provided increased state aid to central school districts. Also, the law was later amended to provide that no school in any district which joined in the formation of a central district may be closed for the lower six grades unless the legal voters of such district decide that the school shall be closed. The district, however, becomes a part of the larger unit of administration. A central school is organized and maintained for the upper six grades, and all the schools of the central district are administered by one board of education consisting of five members. There is one tax levied over the whole central unit for the support of all the schools in the central district.

The Rural Education Bureau has supervised and directed the organization of 138 central school districts in the past six years, 56 having been organized during the past school year. There has been a gradual increase in the number of districts included in each centralization. During the year just closed the average number was 12.8. The total number of former school districts included in all central districts is approximately 1315. Of this number about 1100 were one-teacher districts.

In supervising this work, the Rural Education Bureau has proceeded on the theory that rural people must be informed and that, when informed, they will act intelligently. This, we think, is the fundamental principle of democracy; otherwise, our institutions could not endure. The chief function of the Bureau, therefore, has not been to prepare and deliver lectures on centralization, but rather to furnish facts through superintendents and rural committees for the people to study. People like better that which they do for themselves than that which others do for them. If any section in rural New York gets a central school district, the rural people there must ask for it, and they know it.

What has all this to do with supervision? Good supervision is dependent upon right organization. I will describe briefly a typical central rural school in a typical central school district. You can then draw your own conclusions as to the relation of centralization to effective supervision.

The Waterville Central District is about average in size, being composed of eleven former common school districts and one former union free school district. There are approximately 500 pupils enrolled, of which a few more than half are in the lower six grades.

The Central School building is situated on a large site, with ample playground facilities for both older and younger pupils. As we enter the building we see the spacious corridors and opening from them the splendidly equipped and properly lighted grade and classrooms. We observe the kindergarten, the shop wherein boys may test their mechanical skill, the rooms for courses in agriculture, the suite for the home economics instruction, the music and art rooms, the cafeteria, the gymnasium, and a beautiful auditorium. Here we have a supervising principal and a corps of instructors to deal with the complete program of school activities, including those necessary for the promotion of health and the teaching of health habits. The school has its clinics and its nurse, its directors and teachers of physical education.

The improvement in supervision and supervisory practices resultant in the formation of this central school district is too obvious for further discussion before a group of school supervisors. There is strength in union for school supervision as there is strength in union in most undertakings.

Objectives 6 and 7. The sixth and seventh objectives as listed in this outline may be disposed of in a few words. District superintendents from time to time have complained that the clerical requirements of their office are so great as to leave them little time for the actual work of instructional supervision.

In coöperation with the State Association of District Superintendents, the Rural Education Bureau initiated a study of the clerical duties required of district superintendents. The results indicated that superintendents are required to give nearly one-half their time to making reports, answering correspondence, and doing other necessary office work. Many of them act as their own clerks and stenographers. It has been found that there is some duplication of department reports. It is proposed to carry the study still further to ascertain how much reduction can be made in report making, and how the office work of superintendents may be further simplified.

There were many divisions and bureaus in the New York State Department of Education before the Rural Education Bureau came into being. The latter, in a measure, has been a coördinating bureau, endeavoring to make the maximum use in the rural field of the field workers in other divisions and bureaus, utilizing their services to the fullest extent for the improvement of rural school facilities.

This outline is not intended for your instruction. It is an inadequate attempt to tell you how we are attacking the problems of rural supervision in New York. We are depending upon you of the other states to help us by your suggestions. We hope that you may conclude that New York has a program of rural supervision founded on well-defined objectives. It is flexible to meet varying conditions and to conform to new situations. It is based on certain fundamental theories and principles:

1. Rural people, including rural superintendents, must exercise a large degree of self-government. Improvement must work from the ground up rather than from the top down.

2. The function of the state office is to exercise leadership, to set up standards, and to encourage and inspire superintendents, teachers, and school patrons to improve their own situations.

3. Progress must be made step by step, the starting point always being the present location. One bridge must be crossed at a time, and it is always well to cross the first bridge first.

4. In a democracy procedures in rural supervision should be democratic.

SUPERVISORY PRACTICES IN CALIFORNIA[1]

HELEN HEFFERNAN

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California has achieved a decade of growth in rural school supervision. In 1921, legislation was enacted which provided the funds for this educational service to schools having fewer than three hundred children in average daily attendance. Under this provision, cities received funds apportioned on the basis of *three* hundred attendance units, while rural areas received funds on the basis of *five* hundred attendance units. This obvious inequality was corrected by the action of the 1929 legislature and the same basis of apportionment was established for the support of urban and rural supervision.

In 1930-31, 166 rural supervisors were employed. These supervisors afford guidance to the educational program of thirty per cent of California's elementary school children. Fifty-four of the fifty-eight counties in California were served. The four counties without supervision were sparsely settled and had teaching staffs of three, eight, sixteen, and twenty-two teachers respectively. A plan of coöperative service between neighboring counties is now being developed which will result in a state-wide program of rural supervision to reach every teacher no matter how remote the school.

In most counties, a general rural supervisor concerned with the entire elementary school program provides the first supervisory service available. Additional general supervisors and supervisors of one or more special subjects are added as local circumstances indicate need or as financial support for a more extensive program is provided.

The supervisory staff employed in the rural areas is distributed according to function, as follows:

Type of Supervision	*Number of Supervisors*
General rural supervision	83
Attendance supervision	25
Attendance—Physical Education	5
Attendance—Health	2
Health	6
Physical Education	5
Health—Physical Education	2
Physical Education—Visual Education	1
Music	20
Art	5
Primary	5
Research	2
Immigrant Education	1
Penmanship	1
Curriculum	1
Manual Arts	1
Agriculture	1
Total	166

When supervision was first introduced in California, there were few trained supervisors available and none particularly acquainted with the specific problems involved in the supervision of small schools. In 1925, certification requirements were established for the supervisory credential. Persons wishing to qualify for this service must have completed four years of study following high school graduation and must have secured the bachelor's degree; they must have had seventeen months of success-

[1] An address before the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction at Los Angeles, June 30, 1931.

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GRAND HAVEN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

ful teaching experience and in addition must have completed fifteen semester units of work in courses designed to give preparation for the field of supervision.

The result of these credential requirements has been to secure supervisors with increasingly better professional and general educational qualifications. For the most part, only persons of wide experience in teaching and professional training as supervisors are being employed. Superintendents are coming to appreciate the importance of securing as rural supervisors persons (1) well-trained as teachers and supervisors; (2) who can give evidence of continuous professional growth in service as indicated by summer school, extension, or other college work; (3) who have had wide experience throughout the elementary school and particularly in the primary grades; and (4) who possess those qualities of personal fitness, as: physical energy, personality, tact, perseverance, and sympathy likely to qualify them for the responsibility of leading and directing teachers.

The outstanding characteristics of rural supervision in California at the present time are:

1. In every county there is a carefully prepared forward-looking supervisory program based on a survey of the actual needs of the specific situation.
2. All county programs for the improvment of instruction in rural areas are integrated in a state-wide program.

In the spring of each year, all rural supervisors submit a report indicating:

1. An evaluation of the extent to which the year's supervisory objectives have been realized.
2. The number of teachers' meetings held, topics covered, and types of programs.
3. The professional meetings attended by the supervisor.
4. The outstanding handicaps in the work.
5. The activities that have proved of most value in informing the public as to the function and value of the schools.
6. The use made of standard tests of intelligence and achievement.
7. The techniques of supervision employed.
8. Special adaptation made of curriculum to rural school needs.
9. An outline of the supervisory program for the next year.

Additional information is reported covering the specific objectives in the state-wide rural education program for the year. In the reports for the year 1930-31, supervisors have reported on the state objectives set up for them a year ago. For purpose of illustration these particular objectives have been stressed:

1. Closer articulation of the rural elementary and secondary schools.
2. Development of guidance programs in rural schools.
3. Introduction of the new activity curriculum for primary children published by the state under the title: "Teachers' Guide to Child Development."

The careful record of supervisory activities, the evaluation of each year's work, and a projected program for the next year serve to make supervision more definite and scientific. These supervisory reports are evaluated, individual conferences with supervisors are held concerning their programs, and a personal letter is written to each supervisor commending valuable accomplishment, suggesting techniques, giving the state objectives in supervision for the coming year, and indicating new material available for the use of supervisors.

The work of supervision is integrated through an annual meeting held for one week in the fall. This official conference provides an opportunity for conference and discussion. It permits dissemination of information resulting from research studies, acquaints the entire group with interesting procedures developed in certain counties,

and provides for presentation of new materials such as courses of study which have been prepared. Quarterly one-day sectional supervisory conferences are held at convenient centers. At these meetings problems of interest to the particular group are studied. As a result of the work of these sectional groups a course of study in music for rural schools, a course of study in art for rural schools, and a bulletin on the observance of "Public Schools Week" have been produced. A study of child-accounting systems was undertaken in one section and a plan adapted to rural needs was evolved. Other studies too numerous for the limitations of this discussion but of similar interest were completed through co-operative study.

A few of the noteworthy results of rural supervision may be mentioned as indicative of the service being rendered. These were selected for brief review because of their especial significance in the improvement of rural education:

1. The extension and interpretation of activity education.
2. The beginning of programs of special education
   a. For the physically handicapped.
   b. For the language handicapped.
3. The development of curriculum adapted to rural school needs.
4. The extension to rural children of better instruction in the appreciation subjects.
5. The provision for better articulation of rural elementary and secondary schools.

All supervisors have been engaged during the past year in interpreting the new course of study for primary grades, "The Teachers' Guide to Child Development," to their teachers. These quotations from supervisors' reports are illustrative:

We have used the "Teachers' Guide to Child Development" as one topic in each of our group meetings. We have read the book as an authority upon activities; as a starting place to understand the present philosophy of education; and we have used it as a source book and guide in many of our activities. We have used it as a basis for many an individual conference. Teachers in the lower grades are so pleased to have their copy. Teachers of intermediate and upper grades regret the fact that there is not a similar "Guide" for them.—Butte County.

That all is not smooth sailing in promoting an activity curriculum would seem to be indicated in this supervisor's observations:

As soon as the "Teachers' Guide to Child Development" was received from the state office, we called a conference of kindergarten and primary teachers, reviewed the book, and supplied each teacher with a copy. We requested that each carry on at least one activity, that they write their plans, including objectives, outline of content, approaches, problems, outcomes, and the bibliography actually used. Later in the year another conference was held in which we evaluated the results of the teachers' efforts to apply the activity technique. Nearly all said they believed the children had acquired valuable habits and skills. The faith of some of these was weak in the beginning. A few still regard an activity as something added to the curriculum, rather than a *way* of using it.—Ventura County.

Supervisors of child welfare and general supervisors in rural areas have done much to meet the problems of children too handicapped either physically or mentally to profit by instruction in the public schools. In some of these cases a program of special education was indicated, in others hospitalization was necessary to remove or ameliorate the defect so the child could engage profitably in the school program.

One county supervisor reports:

Three deaf-mute children were found in one of the camps of the seasonal workers in the walnuts. These children had never been to school and were considered imbeciles. Ar-

rangements have been made to enter them in the California State School for the Deaf.

Through the aid of the State Department of Education and the State Department of Social Welfare, a boy with an amputated limb was restored to school attendance after having been fitted with an artificial leg.

Hospitalization and corrective surgery have been secured for two little victims of infantile paralysis.—Ventura County.

The significance of this phase of supervisory service is apparent. In cities, such problems would be handled by properly organized health service agencies, but in many of our rural districts there are no health or social service agencies. The rural supervisor is frequently the only person of sufficient training to know the procedure necessary to meet the problem. Many handicapped children escape notice in rural areas. These children grow to a useless, unhappy adulthood when they might be wholly or partially rehabilitated by treatment and an educational program adapted to their needs at the proper time.

In another county an excellently qualified supervisor of child welfare is carrying on a program of varied activities designed to meet the needs of the handicapped. Quoting from this report:

An endeavor has been made to reach most of the schools with a clinic, either for first grade and pre-school children or for children below par physically regardless of age or grade. Altogether twenty clinics have been held with a total of 870 children examined from sixty different schools.

As a result of the regular monthly chest clinics at the County Health Center to which we took our rural children, the preventorium is filled to capacity and has a waiting list. This is not due to a change in the local conditions but communities have awakened to their needs and the possibilities for correction of defects.—Tulare County.

In regard to the handling of problems of special education, this supervisor reports the service rendered each group of handicapped as follows:

Crippled Children. No special clinics for crippled children have been held this year but all new cases have been examined and either taken care of locally by a visiting orthopedic surgeon or sent away to an orthopedic hospital.

Speech Defectives. Two teachers doing practice teaching toward their credentials in speech correction have been working with some thirty-five different children.

Blind-Deaf. Four of our pupils are now at the State School for Blind. Fifteen partially sighted children are carrying on sight conservation work using books with large type and specially prepared written work.

Mental Hygiene. Assistance has been given to the teachers with twenty-eight of their problem pupils by making personality studies and giving individual psychometric tests.

Supervision has directed attention to another group of handicapped children in the rural areas. In California over 200,000 children are foreign-born or of foreign-born parentage. One in every six children enrolled in the elementary schools is a child from a home in which some language other than English is the medium of expression. This problem is largely concentrated in the southern counties. The seven southern counties contribute over fifty per cent of the total foreign pupil population.

Coöperative effort on the part of the supervisors in the southern section has resulted in the preparation of a course of study to guide teachers through that period of bewildering adjustment on the part of little foreign children to the new environment. The results of this effort are indicated by a supervisor in one of these counties:

The "Tentative Course of Study for Non-English Speaking Beginners" has been much used and the results are commendable. The best prepared group of Mexican primary children we have had to promote gives evidence

of the work done. Reading tests show they are equal to English speaking children of the same intelligence if they have had adequate teaching in the junior primary program. I am pleased with the results we have obtained with our non-English speaking beginners.—San Bernardino County.

The rural supervisor is not only confronted with all of the curricular problems of any supervisor any place but, in addition, the course of study for rural children must be adapted to their experiences, which are quite different from those of the city child. Moreover, the course of study must be organized to meet the problem of a group heterogeneous in age, grade, and ability.

A creditable effort to adapt curriculum to the needs of rural schools has been begun in the past year as a coöperative enterprise of teachers and supervisors of seventeen northern counties in which similar rural conditions prevail. These counties are sparsely settled, agricultural counties. There are many small one- and two-teacher schools. The character of the pupil population is similar throughout the area.

Each county group assumed responsibility for some phase of subject matter, as health education, elementary science, social studies, reading and literature, or the language arts. Groups of teachers were organized and extension courses in curriculum making in the particular field were given under the direction of qualified instructors. The results of their study and actual classroom experimentation are now being edited and will constitute the course of study in this area when finally printed. All the groups insist that the printed courses be labelled "tentative" because they have come to appreciate the necessity for flexible adaptation of curriculum—they have come to realize that, in a world of constant change, no curriculum should ever become fixed or rigid.

One serious deficiency of the rural school is the frequent absence or meager amount of instruction afforded in the appreciation subjects. In a county which has experienced seven years of competent music supervision, the attitude toward music and the aims and ideals of the teachers have entirely changed. Teachers have gained confidence and power in the teaching of music, are exercising greater discrimination in their selection of music material, are expecting better work from children, are making more use of their musical ability, and are integrating music with other subjects in the school curriculum. The supervisor says:

This year seventeen Play Days were held in various parts of the county, in each of which a number of schools participated. At each, a musical program was given beginning with community singing and including chorus selections by all the children present. Operettas, rhythm band, and school orchestra performances, unison, two-, three- and four-part songs, folk dances, and singing games were given by the individual schools. These programs have steadily improved from year to year both in quality of performance and in type of material used.—Sonoma County.

An art supervisor in a valley county reports similar problems and accomplishment:

One of our greatest problems is to give a working background to the many teachers who come to us unequipped to teach art. The teachers in the county met Saturday mornings for three months to develop skill in crafts, to prepare materials, and to study means of integrating art instruction with the other school subjects. They have grown in a realization that themes occurring in different school subjects offer expression opportunity in all phases of drawing, design, and color work. Art expression in turn is an important factor in developing and shaping thought.—Kern County.

One of our state objectives has been the bringing about of a closer articulation be-

tween the elementary and high schools of rural areas. Three years ago one county superintendent, in response to the question, "How do you attempt to 'bridge the gap' for the child between the elementary and the secondary school?" said, "We send him on with his eighth grade diploma and his teacher's blessing—nothing more."

It is interesting to note that this great rural county now reports a definite program of guidance and articulation between the units of school organization:

> The results of the Stanford Achievement Tests have been sent to the different principals of the high and junior high schools. Personal conferences between elementary teachers and high school principals have been arranged to discuss the type of curriculum best suited to the individual needs of entering students.
>
> High school districts have sent their representatives to the grammar schools to talk to graduating classes and to advise them concerning the curricular and extra-curricular opportunities in high school.—San Bernardino County.

A quotation from the letter of a rural supervisor to the high school principals of another county will serve to show how attempts at better articulation are being developed:

> We will furnish data regarding our eighth grade graduates this year. This data should be valuable in classifying, adjusting pupils, and arranging courses to fit their varying abilities and needs.
>
> To this end we have worked out a Homogeneous Grouping Plan which makes use of a number of factors including intelligence quotients, results of achievement tests, teachers' judgments, and chronological age. These are computed on a total weighted score basis, which we believe to be rather scientific in determining a workable classification index.
>
> About May first we intend to furnish you a rating card for each pupil expected to enter your school next fall. This card will contain cumulative material devised to acquaint you better with the individual, his capacities, interests, and special traits.—Tulare County.

Within the time allotted to this presentation, the problem has been to select from a multitudinous variety of meritorious achievement those particular accomplishments which indicate how rural progress is being served through the agency of rural supervision. Effective service has developed public conviction of the value of supervision and has awakened community interest in the solution of many problems upon which economic, educational, and social progress in the open country depends.

A STATE PROGRAM FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING IN THE RURAL SCHOOLS[1]

ANNA SWENSON

Director of Teacher Training Departments, State of Minnesota

With more than 8500 teachers and 180,000 children distributed over a large agricultural area, Minnesota has a tremendous problem in rural education. The administrative phases of the problem are being solved by a slow but consistent growth in consolidation and by closing small schools and transporting pupils to larger schools which have better organization and better instruction. The law provides that boards may make contracts from year to year for this purpose. Through much splendid work by county superintendents, studies made and presented in school officers' meetings by members of the Rural Division of the State Department of Education, and the interest and enthusiasm of intelligent rural people, seven months' schools, the minimum required by law, have almost disappeared and in a number of counties all districts have nine months' schools.

Paralleling these administrative activities has been a growing program for the improvement of teaching. Teachers' certificates were originally issued upon examinations offered by county superintendents and were county certificates only. This function was gradually assumed by the state and for over twenty years no county certificates have been issued in Minnesota. A certificate law passed by the 1929 legislature eliminated teachers' examinations and all certificates are now based upon completion of a definite course of training. Certification is mentioned in this connection because it has direct connection with training in preparation for teaching—one of the chief activities for the improvement of teaching in rural schools directed by the State Department of Education and financed from state funds. This training for rural school service has been done very largely in High School Teacher Training Departments during the last two decades. The state was fortunate in having Miss Mabel Carney as the first Director of High School Teacher Training, and the work has moved steadily forward. Since 1922 the Departments have been on a graduate basis and standards for admission have been high; courses have been improved and training teachers have been increasingly helpful to rural teachers and county superintendents.

Gradually and consistently the training for rural teaching is now being taken over by the teachers' colleges and the training departments are being eliminated as their need ceases to exist.

The training-in-service which is most nearly comparable to supervisory programs in some states is carried on in Minnesota through institute work. The outstanding purposes of this work are, first, to help make the rural schools function efficiently in the lives of the children through effective teaching; and, second, to help teachers through their own professional growth to meet the everyday tasks of the schoolroom with more confidence, courage, and joy in their work. The first form of institute in Minnesota was that of a traditional five-

[1] An address before the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction at Los Angeles, June 30, 1931.

day meeting planned by the county superintendent. The program was of the inspirational, heterogeneous type which prevailed throughout the United States. In 1918, the traditional type of institute disappeared and since that time the work has been planned, directed, and financed by the State Department of Education. The authority to request an institute has been left to the county superintendent. Institutes are not obligatory in any county of the state, but requests come each year from practically every county. Under this plan an Assistant Director of Education was (and continues to be) the Director of Institutes. Her function is to carry on correspondence with the county superintendents concerning the date, place, program, and other administrative details for institutes in their respective counties. Before the revision of the Institute Law in 1925, the sessions were held for five days, school officers were required to pay the teachers for this time, and the work was centered in the fall season of the year. During the period of the operation of this institute plan, conditions developed which created a need for a revision of the Institute Law. The Commissioner of Education and the Director of Institutes felt that the institute instructors should have a direct contact with the daily work of the rural school teachers as a basis for more helpful instruction in the institutes. Under the law then in effect this could not be done.

The State Commissioner and the members of the Rural Division formulated a plan whereby a regular staff of institute instructors, employed for the school year, would assist the county superintendents in their problems of supervision. The institute instructors were to be members of the Rural Division of the State Department of Education and their services were to be given by the state, the only cost to the county to be that of local arrangements, a minor item. This plan was discussed in the annual conference held by the Department for all county superintendents and they were unanimous in their desire to support such a law.

Under the present plan the institute instructor works with the county superintendent during the institute week. This is divided into several days of visiting the schools and one or two days of meetings attended by all the rural teachers of the county. The study of teaching problems by means of visits and conferences with teachers actually at work and the use of this knowledge as a basis of institute instruction is the unique contribution of the Minnesota institute plan.

There are several clearly defined objectives which guide all activities in the work.

1. To develop and promote a state program for the general improvement of rural education. The State Commissioner directs the entire activities of the Rural Division toward equalizing the education of children in ungraded schools with those in graded schools. Other divisions within the Department give a generous share of their efforts to this aim. The institute staff gives its full time to this objective.

2. To coöperate with county superintendents in planning and carrying out a county program of supervision. The earnest coöperation of the county superintendents and their growing appreciation of the help given by the institute instructors are especially encouraging aspects of the new plan.

3. To interpret and enrich the Minnesota Curriculum for Elementary Schools and to aid rural teachers in adapting and using it effectively. This state provides the same curriculum for both graded and ungraded schools and demands the same scholarship achievement for entrance into its high schools. Because of the complex organization of ungraded schools and, in some in-

stances, a shorter school year, this is a high standard to be reached by the ungraded schools. Every kind of help possible is provided by the State Department to assist the rural teachers in this difficult task. To this end the institute staff devotes a large portion of its time to instruction in the standards of achievement set up for each grade and to improvement of teaching technique.

4. To help individual teachers on problems which arise in their particular schools. This is necessarily a minor objective as there are some eight thousand rural schools in Minnesota and only four institute instructors. The chief aim in visiting rural schools is to assist the county superintendent in solving his special problems and to study all types of rural school conditions. By this means the institute instruction is based upon known needs of the ungraded schools. This constant observation and participation in actual rural school activities keeps the institute program practical yet at a high standard.

The program of subject matter for institute work since 1923 has been based upon the Minnesota Curriculum for Elementary Schools. To avoid repetition and insure continuity the work has been planned for five-year periods. Each year some review as well as new material has been presented to the teachers in mimeographed or printed bulletins. This organized material in compact and fairly permanent form has been helpful in the institutes and to county superintendents and teachers in the classrooms throughout the year. The use of definitely prepared outlines as a basis for instruction results in more effective, uniform work in the county institutes and in more uniform teaching in the rural schools over the entire state.

The following table indicates the growth of institute service in Minnesota. County superintendents and teachers show an increasing demand for and appreciation of the work.

	1928-1929	1929-1930
1. Number of institutes..	92	106
2. Number of days spent visiting schools	165½	178
3. Number of schools visited	578	679
4. Number of teachers visited	647	874

PROPERTY OF
GRAND HAVEN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

IS THE CART BEFORE THE HORSE IN SCHOOL MUSIC?

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The data for this study were obtained in connection with a problem previously reported[1] which had for its purpose the discovery and evaluation of test material for the prognosis of sight singing. The significant findings of that study which have a bearing here are as follows: first, of the six Seashore tests, that of pitch and tonal memory proved of significant prognostic value. Second, two other tests, a dictation test and a test of recognition of familiar tunes from notation, showed marked predictive significance. These two tests involve auditory elements together with some knowledge of ability for interpreting the musical notation system. Third, eight tests of factual knowledge of the notational system which do not involve directly auditory factors showed relatively low value in predicting sight singing.

It is the intent of this report to present further correlation data for the eight tests which involve purely factual materials, and in conjunction with the data on the other types of tests to set up a tentative interpretation of the part played by factual knowledge of musical notation in sight singing. In spite of increased emphasis upon appreciation in the music of the public schools, the major emphasis, in point of time, energy and standards of achievement, centers on sight singing. It follows therefore that any light that may be thrown upon the factors underlying this experience may be of prime significance in giving direction to instruction and learning in public school music.

The nature of the eight tests of knowledge of notation are fairly well indicated by their names: so-fa syllables, lines and spaces, symbols, key signatures, scales, notes and rests, vocabulary, and measures. The materials for these tests were chosen by a trained musician of considerable experience in public school music. They were constructed with the idea that they should represent the commonly accepted materials of instruction. It was believed that they would have value in predicting ability to profit by sight singing instruction since they are customarily used as means to learning sight singing. It was thought that they would be valid measures of factors basic to sight singing, or would at least be indirect indices of sight singing through representing degrees of interest and in turn degrees of native abilities bearing on sight singing. Reliability coefficients were not computed for these knowledge tests, but the coefficients of these factors one with another as given in Part IV of Table I imply measures of considerable reliability.

The Seashore pitch and tonal memory tests are well known. The scores used for these tests resulted from two givings of each test, the reliability as obtained by the Spearman-Brown formula being .93 for each. These tests are obviously measures of rather simple auditory functions. They are generally thought of as representing native abilities.

The sight singing test consisted of four short songs of from eight to twenty measures each, graded from easy to the moder-

[1] Salisbury, Frank S., and Smith, H. B.: "Prognosis of Sight Singing Ability of Normal School Students." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, October, 1929.

ately difficult. The tests were all given by the same music instructor to but one student at a time. The scoring was of single note and time interval values. It is important to note that, in keeping with the original purpose for which the data were secured, the sight singing test was given at the end of a twelve-week period of instruction while all the other tests were given at the beginning of the twelve-week period. It would be desirable for the purposes of this study to have had all tests given at the same time. The reliability of this test, using the Spearman-Brown formula, correlating scores of odd lines of the songs with the even, was .98.

The recognition of tunes test required the student to match the names of familiar tunes with the musical notation of their first line, generally three or four measures in length. There were but thirteen items in the test. The reliability was not computed. This experience may be described as sub-vocal sight singing, the tune generally being hummed to establish a basis for recognizing the name of the tune.

The dictation test presented a series of thirty situations in each of which the student listened to the tonic and then to four whole notes sounded on the piano, listened again to two repetitions of these same four notes, then wrote the notes for the tones played upon a staff provided for the purpose. Each of the one hundred and twenty notes were scored. Correlating scores of the fifteen odd measures with the fifteen even, a reliability coefficient of .92 was obtained by the Spearman-Brown formula. It is apparent that this test makes use of the ability to recognize differences in pitch and the ability to remember tonal combinations. It is likewise evident that a knowledge of the notational system is necessary for properly placing the notes on the staff.

It is in point here to note the substantial correlation obtained between the measures of sight singing, recognition of tunes and dictation. Sight singing correlated with recognition of tunes .56, and with dictation, .60; recognition of tunes and dictation, .60.

In the following report correlation coefficients are interpreted as indicating the degree to which certain factors are components in other musical experiments. It is assumed that the abilities measured by the Seashore tests of pitch and tonal memory are antecedent in development to and are component factors in the musical experiences, sight singing, recognition of tunes, and dictation as herein described. It is likewise assumed that the eight tests of knowledge of notation are measures of functions that are developed in the course of musical instruction with the intent that they will be contributing factors to and will remain as components in sight singing, recognition of tunes and dictation.

Turning now to the data of Part I of Table I, let us note the way in which the tests of sight singing, recognition of tunes, and dictation correlate, first with the Seashore tests, and second with the factual knowledge tests. These correlations were obtained from a population of 132 freshman normal school students. The coefficients between both sight singing and tunes with pitch and tonal memory, range between .60 and .64, while the correlation of dictation with the two auditory tests are appreciably lower, .54 and .45. Pitch and tonal memory combined yield multiple correlation coefficients as follows: with sight singing, .72; with recognition of tunes, .72; with dictation, .58.

Continuing with the correlations of Part I of Table I, we find that the correlations with the eight knowledge tests are highest with dictation, ranging from .46 to .71, with a median of .53; with tunes they range from .33 to .48 with a median of .43; and

TABLE I

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN TEST SCORES OF SIGHT SINGING, RECOGNITION OF TUNES AND DICTATION, AND OF CERTAIN TESTS OF KNOWLEDGE OF MUSICAL NOTATION, OF THE SEASHORE TESTS OF PITCH AND TONAL MEMORY, AND OF PART I OF THE THORNDIKE EXAMINATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

	Auditory		Knowledge of Notational System								
	Pitch	T. M.	So-Fa	Lines Spaces	Sym.	Key Sig.	Sca.	Notes Rests	Voc.	Meas.	Md. r
Part I											
Sight singing	.60	.64	.42	.23	.26	.37	.26	.24	.29	.26	.26
Recognition of tunes	.62	.62	.46	.35	.44	.42	.48	.33	.50	.40	.43
Dictation	.54	.45	.71	.50	.62	.57	.53	.52	.53	.46	.53
Part II											
Thorndike, Part I .	.24	.31	.28	.21	.26	.24	.17	.18	.28	.34	.25
Part III											
Tonal Memory ...	.485	x	.30	.26	.28	.34	.23	.10	.40	.16	.27
Pitch	x	.485	.38	.31	.40	.29	.30	.28	.33	.25	.305
Part IV											
So-Fa Syl.			x	.88	.62	.63	.65	.52	.60	.54	.60
Lines, Spaces			.88	x	.60	.54	.57	.47	.51	.52	.54
Symbols			.62	.60	x	.61	.58	.50	.52	.63	.61
Key Sigs.			.63	.54	.61	x	.26	.53	.61	.56	.56
Scales			.55	.57	.58	.26	x	.54	.60	.56	.57
Notes, Rests			.52	.47	.50	.53	.54	x	.39	.66	.53
Vocabulary			.60	.51	.52	.61	.60	.39	x	.53	.53
Measures			.54	.52	.63	.56	.56	.66	.53	x	.56

with sight singing the range is from .23 to .42 with the median dropping sharply to .26. The most effective combination of these knowledge tests in regression equations yields multiple correlation coefficients as follows: with sight singing, .44; with recognition of tunes, .58; and with dictation, .76.

To facilitate comparisons the multiple correlation coefficients noted in the last two paragraphs are placed together in Table II.

The data of both Part I of Table I and that of Table II seem to warrant the deduction that in sight singing and in recognition of tunes the auditory factors of pitch and tonal memory dominate over the knowledge factors, while in dictation the knowledge factors overdominate the auditory factors. The auditory elements

TABLE II

MULTIPLE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS OF COMPOSITE (A) AUDITORY AND (B) KNOWLEDGE TESTS, WITH MEASURES OF THE MUSICAL EXPERIENCES OF SIGHT SINGING, RECOGNITION OF TUNES, AND DICTATION

	Sight Singing	Recognition of Tunes	Dictation
Pitch and Tonal Memory	.72	.72	.58
Knowledge Factors	.44	.58	.76

seem to be of similar importance in the sight singing experience and in the recognition of tunes, while the knowledge factors seem of relatively more importance in recognizing tunes than in sight singing. In view of the emphasis put upon these factors in sight singing instruction in our schools, the low correlations of these knowledge factors with sight singing are indeed most striking and unexpected.

Turning to Part III of Table I, it appears that these knowledge factors show but a small amount of correlation with pitch and tonal memory, which in turn have been shown to enter in a significant degree into the musical experience of sight singing. These correlations of knowledge tests with tonal memory range from .10 to .40 with a median of .27, while with pitch they range from .25 to .40 with a median of .305. Variations in these basic auditory abilities do not seem to have led to like degrees of knowledge in the notational system or vice versa. These findings are not in keeping with what might be expected if we are to think of the notational system as an essential avenue of approach to musical experience.

These unexpected results prompt further inquiry into the place held by these knowledge factors in the scheme of things educational. Note in Part II of Table I their low correlations with a sixty minute intelligence test, Part I of the Thorndike Examination for High School Graduates, series 1919-24. The coefficients range from .17 to .34 with a median of .25, and indicate a field of factual knowledge of a specialized order, contrasting markedly with most tests of an informational nature which usually correlate fairly well with intelligence tests. These correlations are comparable to the correlations of pitch and tonal memory with the Thorndike test, .24 and .31 respectively. It may be added here for sake of further comparison that sight singing and dictation correlate with the Thorndike test in about the same way, .25 and .28 respectively. As knowledge factors this system of musical information seems to be of a specialized field.

Turning to Part IV of Table I, it appears that these knowledge tests correlate fairly well one with another. There is no one of them but that correlates with some other to the amount of .60 or more, indicating at least a fair degree of reliability, and making it highly improbable that the low correlations noted above are due to the knowledge tests being poor measuring instruments as such. A survey of Part IV of Table I seems to warrant the conclusion that these knowledge factors constitute parts of a fairly well integrated body of knowledge. This is exactly what might be expected from the fact that they are

concomitants in the scheme of musical instruction.

To summarize with respect to these knowledge factors, the data seem to support the conclusions (1) that they constitute a body of knowledge that is fairly well integrated one part with the other, but decidedly specialized and little related to general knowledge; (2) that they are but little related to the two auditory abilities, pitch and tonal memory; and (3) that they play but a very minor part in the musical experience of sight singing.

What can be said in summary concerning the nature of sight singing, which plays such a large part in our public school music? The data seem to warrant the conclusions that sight singing is a musical experience depending principally upon the auditory abilities, pitch and tonal memory, and to but a relatively minor degree upon knowledge of the notational system, however essential a minimal knowledge of the system may be to the experience. As compared with recognition of tunes, sight singing depends less upon knowledge factors of notation and to similar degree upon those of pitch and tonal memory. As compared with dictation, sight singing is far less dependent upon knowledge factors of notation and dependent to a much greater degree upon the auditory factors.

Before making any suggestions as to the implications of these conclusions to musical instruction, let us refer briefly to two other studies that have a bearing upon the question of the part played by knowledge of the notational system.

Mosher[2] reported in 1925 his attempt to construct a group test of sight singing. He used a sight singing criterion very similar in nature to the one used for this study. The weightings of the seven parts of his group test are significant in corroborating the conclusion that in sight singing auditory factors dominate over knowledge factors. The part of the Mosher test having the greatest weight was a dictation test quite similar to that used in this study. The total correlation of his dictation test with the criterion was .62 and the regression weight (for standard measures) was .41. Identifying well-known melodies ranked next, correlating with the criterion .47 and having a regression weight of .19. This test is similar to the test of recognition of tunes described above, it having but eight items as compared with thirteen used in this study. Higher correlation with sight singing would probably have been obtained had his test been longer. A test of ability to write melodies from dictation ranked third, correlating with the criterion .48 and taking a regression weight of .15. A test of "ability to write rhythmic patterns from hearing them played in monotone on piano" ranked fourth, correlating with the criterion .34 and taking a regression weight of .08. All four of these parts of the Mosher test involve auditory factors as well as the notational system. The other three parts of the Mosher test do not directly involve auditory factors. One, a test of "recognition of scales, chords, and intervals," correlated with the criterion .37 and took a regression weight of but .05. A test of "musical symbols, marks of expression, and general musical information," containing seventy-three items, correlated with the criterion .34 and took a regression weight of zero, and a test of "knowledge of measures and note values" was likewise correlated with the criterion .34 and weighted zero. To summarize, three parts of the Mosher test covering seven pages of test material on musical information showed low correlations with sight singing and had but little to contribute to the

[2] Mosher, R. M.: *A Study of the Group Method of Measurement of Sight Singing.* Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 194.

whole, leaving the burden of actual measurement to four tests involving auditory factors.

Mosher reports correlations of .44 between his test and both the Seashore pitch and tonal memory test. It should be noted that he did not validate the Seashore tests against his sight singing criterion but against his group test, which, with the parts unweighted, correlated with his criterion .65, and with the parts weighted gave a multiple correlation of .68. These conditions make his findings and his conclusions of little importance in evaluating the part pitch and tonal memory play in sight singing.

Turning to another worker in this field, we may lay the basis for discussion by noting that the parts of the Kwalwasser-Ruch Test of Musical Accomplishment may be classified with respect to whether they involve auditory factors, or whether they test knowledge of the notational system. One part calls for recognition of tunes (ten familiar melodies), comparable to the recognition of tunes test of this study; another part calls for humming from the notation of "America" and marking five wrong measures; and another part of the test calls for the recognition of five time errors after humming from the notation of "America." These three parts definitely involve auditory factors and two other parts, testing recognition of syllable names and recognition of pitch names, might or might not make use of auditory factors. The other five tests obviously test factual knowledge. They are tests of "knowledge of musical symbols and terms," "knowledge of time signatures," "knowledge of key signatures," "knowledge of note values," and "knowledge of rest values." One may safely estimate that fifty per cent of a score on the Kwalwasser-Ruch test will represent factual knowledge.

From the result of these tests given in several of the larger cities, Kwalwasser[8] concludes that music instruction is not accomplishing the objectives which are commonly set up by musical supervisors in America. He says, "Unless we develop a scientific pedagogy for music teaching, our curriculum is likely to undergo many radical changes, the most important of which will be the disappearance of note-reading and the substitution of music appreciation as a major objective." But he does not recommend such a program. He notes Bobbitt's recommendation that note-reading be dropped from the curriculum since it is a waste of time and money and is seldom used in after-school life, but says that, "since note-reading is not mastered by the children in the public schools, it takes no stretch of the imagination, or profundity of intellect to observe that it has no social value. How can one use what he does not possess? The only kind of note-reading that has any social utility is proficient note-reading; and proficient note-reading is only rarely developed for the important reason that we have not yet learned to teach it proficiently—in spite of the fact that we have been struggling with note-reading in the public schools since music was first introduced." We infer that the Kwalwasser way out of the dilemma is more note teaching—done in newer and better ways.

But one is led to believe that Kwalwasser and not Bobbitt is unwittingly insisting on getting the cart before the horse, when you read a paragraph immediately following that last quoted. He says:

> Do we spend too much time in naming notes and not enough time in singing the tones represented by the notes? By actual measurement it was found that the negro (fifth grade) in Gary was inferior to the white child (fifth grade) in knowledge of note and rest values, naming syllables and musical terms, and in

[8] Kwalwasser, Jacob: *Tests and Measurements in Music.* Birchard, 1927.

knowledge of time and key signatures, but he was superior in the use of this material. While this situation may sound somewhat irregular, it may be easily explained nevertheless. The negro is probably subjected to less formal drill in notational knowledge than the white child, for the probable reason that the negro is less interested in the theoretical side of musical nomenclature. So instead of *talking about* musical symbols the negro sings *from* musical notation. Notes on the staff are to be sung and not discussed. And although the negro is not always able to describe and name musical signs and terms correctly, he has what is of infinitely more importance, a functional knowledge of their meaning.

Both Mosher's study and Kwalwasser's discussion make it appear that sight singing may indeed be one thing, and knowledge of the notational system another, and that the first is dependent upon the second to a much smaller degree than is commonly supposed. Why should not the need that children actually have for notation in creating a broad, rich, satisfying school life in music be the gauge of how much notational instruction shall be given?

The work of Mrs. Coleman[4] of The Lincoln School represents an approach to musical training or better, musical living, that places the knowledge factors in a position more in harmony with the implications of the data presented in this study. A few lines from Mrs. Coleman point the problem and suggest a solution. She says, "We have overlooked the original and true purpose of notation, and have confused the symbol with the thing symbolized." Again, "Children who had never sung songs in their lives delighted in singing folk songs and improvising little songs of their own, and they all reveled in rollicking dances of childish primitive peoples. And what about notation? I gave it to them when, out of their own experience, they realized the need for learning to read notes, wanted it, and asked for it. Then it was easy."

A year's experimentation in the Training School of Ohio University has convinced music supervisors, critic teachers, and the director that there is a natural, functional use for the notational system, but that first there should be a broad rich musical experience from which grows a real need for recording and sharing the experience with others. The cart must not come before the horse.

In conclusion, this study has interpreted correlation data as pointing out rather definitely that sight singing is dependent upon the factors of pitch and tonal memory as measured by the Seashore tests and to but a minor degree upon factual knowledge of the notational system. Better to gauge the parts played by these two factors, sight singing is compared with recognition of familiar tunes, and dictation, to show their relative dependence upon auditory and knowledge factors.

The works of Mosher and Kwalwasser are referred to as corroborating the data offered here, and the work and viewpoint of Mrs. Coleman cited as an approach to notational instruction as a part of the broad, rich musical experience that is in keeping with the interpretation of these data.

[4] Coleman, Satis N: *Creative Music for Children.* Putnam, 1922-28.

ARE PICTURES AN EFFECTIVE AID IN THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY?[1]

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The place of visual education in our elementary curriculum is a topic of much discussion today. While it is recognized that teachers have always used pictures, slides, postal cards, and other visual aids in connection with their regular school work, these materials have not been organized in any systematic way. More recently stereopticon slides have received recognition and investigations have called attention to the fact that "pictures are an invaluable means of getting certain kinds of experience of a concrete sort . . . but an analysis of the curriculum to determine what can advantageously be taught with the aid of pictures is, however, only begun."[2] Freeman's conclusions point to the fact that "the motion picture is superior within a restricted range of subjects, and that outside this range the older devices are as effective or more effective than motion pictures. The motion picture has the advantage in cases where understanding of the action of the object requires that it be shown in motion, while still pictures appear to have the advantage where a keener study attitude is required."[3]

Statement of the problem. The specific purposes of this study were (1) to determine the real value of pictures as an effective aid in teaching, and (2) to determine the method of presentation best adapted to secure the greatest gain in knowledge. Following Freeman's conclusions that still pictures have an advantage when "a keener study attitude is required," this study was confined to their use. The specific problem thus became the value of the use of the still picture and the best method of such in the teaching of foreign geography in the elementary grades.

Materials used in the investigation. Ten countries were chosen as the basis for investigation: Africa, Alaska, Australia, China, Holland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, South America, and Switzerland. In choosing the countries there was no attempt to correlate the study with the geography work of the grades, but rather to avoid it in order that results might be based solely on the value of the picture. The availability of suitable picture material was, of course, an important consideration and aided greatly in determining the final choice.

The picture material used consisted of a film for each country. Each film contained from twenty to thirty views depicting the geographical features, the life, industries, occupations, historical landmarks and other things peculiar to that country. The following, taken from the African leaflet, is a sample of the type of picture shown: (1) Relief Map of Africa, (2) Mining for Gold in Africa, (3) Harvesting Barley at the School of Agriculture, (4) Pineapple Field, South Africa, (5) Pear Orchard, South Africa, (6) Cutting Sugar Cane.

[1] See unpublished master's thesis, University of Cincinnati, by Mildred Meador, entitled "Effect of Impression Upon Retention," 1928.

[2] Freeman, F. N. *Visual Education—A Comparative Study of Motion Pictures and Other Methods of Instruction.* University of Chicago Press, 1924, pages 70-72.

[3] *Ibid.*

These films are about an inch in width and are easily adjusted in a small, portable machine which is operated by hand, thus making it possible for each picture to remain visible as long as desired. Explaining each film is a leaflet which contains general information about the country and specific information about each picture. The film and leaflet pertaining to each country were analyzed and a true-false test, containing twenty statements, was based on them.

The material thus used in the experiment consisted of the ten films, one for each of the ten countries used in the investigation, the informational material found in the leaflets, and the ten true-false tests, one for each of the ten countries studied.

Description of schools used. Three schools, which for the purpose of this study will be referred to as schools A, B, and C, were used in conducting the investigation. All three were city schools, located in the outlying districts, and having about the same type of child. A and B were larger schools with a differentiation of classes according to ability, this division based solely on teachers' marks. School C was a small school where each class had all grades of mentality. In order to overcome this difference, it was decided to use the second or B group in each of the first two schools mentioned. It was the opinion of the teachers who helped in this study that that group would more nearly approximate the mixed group in school C.

Number of cases involved. Four grades —the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh— were used for the experiment in each of the three schools. These classes averaged about thirty-five pupils, making a total of one hundred forty cases for each school or a grand total of four hundred twenty cases. Since each of the ten tests was given three times, the entire number of tabulations was 12,600.

General method used in all three schools. The following method was used in conducting the experiment. The same test material was given to all three schools. In each school the true-false test was given three times. The first time it was used without any instruction or preparation for the purpose of having a check on the child's general information. The next day, immediately following the lesson, the same test was repeated to measure the gain. The third trial was given one week later in an attempt to measure the amount of retention and indicate the final or ultimate gain over the scores of trial one.

Specific methods employed. In school A the study was conducted without the pictures. Monday morning, in each of the four grades, the children were given the true-false test on the country to be studied that week. This was labeled Trial 1 and each statement checked. Since this test was to be used as a measuring instrument for the gain or loss shown by the others, no information was given and no questions were asked. All the time needed for marking was allowed and the papers were then collected and the subject dropped for that day.

Tuesday morning the teacher of each class conducted a discussion based on the informational material which fitted the film. This lesson lasted from twenty to thirty minutes, depending upon the amount of information given and the interest displayed by the class. During the lesson reference was made to maps or books as the need arose. At the conclusion of the lesson the same test, given the previous day, was given again and checked by the children as Trial 2.

Trial 3 of the test came one week later and, like the first test, was given without comment. The purpose of the third trial was to measure the amount of retention based on the scores made after the lesson

and also the gain in knowledge as shown by the difference between the scores of Trial 1 and Trial 3.

This procedure was followed throughout the experiment, which covered a period of eleven weeks. Each Monday morning the preliminary test of the country for that week was given. Tuesday morning the lesson was studied and the second trial of the test administered. One week later the test was repeated for the third time, the final retest for the tenth country coming on Monday morning of the eleventh week.

In school B, as in school A, the first trial of the true-false test was given on Monday morning without any discussion. Tuesday the teacher gave the lesson, again duplicating the procedure of school A. Immediately following the lesson the film was shown, thus adding the visual image to the verbal one. During the showing of the pictures any questions that arose were answered but discussion was not encouraged. The children's interest had already been aroused by the preceding lesson. How much clearer would their ideas be when supplemented by the visual image?

At the conclusion of the showing of the film, the true-false test was repeated for the second time. One week later, just as in school A, the third trial was given. This method was followed for all ten of the countries used in the investigation.

The procedure in school C duplicated that of the other two schools with one marked exception. The first trial was conducted just as in schools A and B. On Tuesday, instead of giving the verbal impression and then supplementing it by the visual as in school B, the film was thrown on the screen and the entire lesson drawn from it. The verbal lesson and the visual image were recorded at the same time. Discussion was encouraged, questions were asked, things of striking interest pointed out, each picture remaining visible until all it could contribute to the lesson had been drawn out.

Trial 2 of the test was given immediately following the lesson, just as in schools A and B, and one week later was repeated for the third time.

The preceding methods just described of conducting the present study give us the opportunity of measuring the gain from three angles: (1) from the verbal impression alone; (2) from the verbal impression supplemented by the visual; (3) from the visual-verbal impression. The last method, that tried in school C, clearly emphasizes the visual image, for the verbal discussion depended altogether upon those things seen in the picture. The question ever before the children was, "What does the picture tell us?"

Tabulation of data. At the end of the ten weeks test period the papers were graded, the number right standing for the score of each paper. These scores were then tabulated and recorded for each school and grade. The final data consisted of forty record sheets for each school or 120 in all. Each of these 120 contained the scores for three trials of the test on one of the countries, making a total of 360 records, and the total number of tabulations, 12,600.

Results of the investigation. The data collected from the present investigation indicates that the use of the still picture is a very effective aid in the teaching of foreign geography in the elementary school. Trial 1 was given to test the knowledge already possessed by the child and the results appear in Table I. The average median score for the first trial as shown in Table I would seem to indicate that the classes chosen for use in the experiment were nearly equal in their general information. With the one exception of Grade 4 in school C, the record of school A is a little higher than that of the other two schools.

TABLE I

AVERAGE MEDIAN SCORE FOR FIRST TRIAL

	School A	School B	School C
Grade 4	12.2	11.5	12.9
Grade 5	14.7	14.4	14.4
Grade 6	13.6	12.9	12.8
Grade 7	14.2	13.1	14.1

In spite of this slightly higher ranking on general information the average of the median scores, as shown in Table II, indicates that after the lesson, where no pictures were used, school A did not gain as much as schools B and C where pictures were used.

TABLE II

AVERAGE MEDIAN SCORE FOR SECOND TRIAL

	School A	School B	School C
Grade 4	14.1	13.3	14.8
Grade 5	14.9	14.6	15.3
Grade 6	15.5	15.0	15.8
Grade 7	15.7	15.9	16.6

The average median gain based on the results of Tables I and II was 1.375 for school A, 1.75 for school B, and 2.05 for school C. It is evident from this study that the use of pictures aids in the teaching of foreign geography in the elementary schools. A motion picture study paralleling the present one would supply interesting data for comparisons. It would also prove whether the assumption that the study of geography demands a keen study attitude is true.

Method best suited to secure the largest immediate gain. If we accept the evidence of the preceding data, is there any method of presentation best adapted to secure the largest gain in knowledge? Two methods were employed in this study to try to establish some basis for further and more detailed investigation. In both schools B and C interest was aroused by the initial test and the information already in the child's possession measured. School B then supplemented a verbal lesson by the showing of the film. School C used the pictures as the basis for the entire lesson, the picture itself contributing the major portion of the lesson. One example of this may be cited to indicate the responses occasioned by the pictures. Among the African pictures was one showing a dense forest growth, tall reeds in the foreground of the picture, and standing among the reeds the figure of a colored man dressed in a white garment. The question, "What does the picture tell us about Africa?" was kept continually before the class. This particular picture brought forth the following responses:

1. Where are the camels?
2. I thought Africa was a desert.
3. How can Africa have jungles when it is so dry?
4. What makes the jungles?
5. Where are the jungles?
6. It must be awful wet there to make that grass grow so thick.
7. I thought the natives didn't wear clothes.
8. Is it cool any place in Africa?
9. Don't the Arabs live in Africa?
10. That must be an oasis.

From this one picture there arose a discussion of location, zones, climate, tribes living in Africa, rivers, rainfall, civilization, and the white man's commercial hold on the country. Many false impressions were cleared up.

The reactions just recorded make us wonder if we, as teachers, do not narrow the child's horizon. Africa is the land of

deserts and camels; Japan, of cherry blossoms and kimonos; Holland, of wooden shoes and dykes, and so on down the entire list. It seems evident that the visual image gives a truer impression.

Is there any evidence from the data of this study to help us know which of the two visual methods used is the better? We find in almost every case with each country studied and in each of the four grades the "after lesson" gain was greater in school C than in school B. The results presented in Table IV, under the heading "Mean Lesson Gain," indicate that, while pictures are a valuable asset to the teaching of geography, it is necessary to know just how to use them to achieve the most efficient results. It is evident children gain more from a detailed discussion of the picture than from a verbal lesson supplemented by the picture.

Method best suited for greatest amount of retention. Modern education is continually criticised for its lack of thoroughness. We have found out that pictures are an effective aid in the teaching of geography and that there is one method of presenting them that brings about better immediate results. But what about the retention of knowledge? Do pictures aid us in retaining knowledge and by which method do we retain the most?

TABLE III

AVERAGE MEDIAN SCORE FOR TRIALS 2 AND 3

Trial	School A		School B		School C	
	2	3	2	3	2	3
Grade 4	14.1	13.2	13.4	13.3	14.8	15.2
Grade 5	14.9	14.7	14.6	14.5	15.3	14.9
Grade 6	15.5	15.3	15.0	14.7	15.8	15.8
Grade 7	15.7	15.4	15.9	15.5	16.6	16.8

These results show that in the week intervening between Trial 2 and Trial 3 there was a loss in retention in all the grades in schools A and B, while school C shows a gain for grades 4 and 7, the identical score for grade 6, and a loss in but one grade—grade 5. Pictures used as demonstrated in school C bring about greater retention.

The loss in grade 5 clearly shows the value of correlating school work. While there will always be some gain from even isolated "picture shows," those pictures closely associated with the child's school work bring about a much greater gain. The geography work of grade 4 is a trip around the world, that of grade 6, European geography, and grade 7, South America, Australia, Africa, India, and China. In each of these grades the regular work of the school year touched upon some of the countries used in the test. On the other hand, grade 5 studies the geography of the United States. At no point did the experiment correlate with the regular work. In this grade alone, in school C, do we find a loss of retention.

Final gain. The conclusive test to prove which method of teaching geography is superior should be based upon the final gain. By which method did the child really gain the most information? How much more does he know than he knew before the lesson? This conclusion would, of course, be drawn from the gain shown by the scores of Trial 3 over those of Trial 1.

Conclusions. The data from this study are combined in Table IV. This table shows the combined results for each grade in each school on all ten of the tests and also the average of these four medians. The results are grouped thus:

1. The lesson gain (trial 2 over trial 1)
2. The retention (trial 3 over trial 2)
3. The final gain (trial 3 over trial 1)

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TABLE IV

SHOWING TOTAL COMBINED AVERAGES

Grade		School A Ave.		School B Ave.		School C Ave.	
Mean	4	1.72		1.79		1.93	
Lesson	5	1.37		1.70		2.50	
			1.38		1.71		2.12
Gain	6	1.28		1.83		1.86	
	7	1.07		1.52		2.20	
Mean	4	−.84		−.04		.40	
Retention	5	−.20		−.15		−.19	
			−.38		−.17		.08
Gain	6	−.11		−.34		−.02	
	7	−.38		−.15		−.16	
Mean	4	.98		1.83		2.43	
Final	5	1.21		1.59		2.10	
			.98		1.52		2.18
Gain	6	1.07		1.49		1.84	
	7	.69		1.17		2.35	

Trial 1 of the test was given to measure the child's general knowledge. The next day the lesson was given, followed by Trial 2. The scores of Trial 2 over those of Trial 1 would indicate the amount of gain accrued from the teaching of the lesson and is indicated in the table under the "lesson gain."

Trial 3 was given one week later to measure the retention. The scores of Trial 3 over those of Trial 2 would indicate the mount of information retained by the child at the end of the week. This is shown in the table under "retention."

The final or ultimate gain is shown in the table under "final" gain. This indicates the difference between the scores of Trial 3 and Trial 1, and shows the amount of information the child possesses at the end of the test period over and above the general knowledge which he possessed at the beginning and which was measured by Trial 1.

The data collected from this study illustrate the following points:

1. School A, where no pictures were used.
   (1) School A gained less from the lesson than either of the other schools where pictures were used.
   (2) The retention shown by school A at the end of the week was less than in schools B and C, where pictures were used.
   (3) The final gain for school A was less than that in schools B and C, where pictures were used.
2. School B, where the lesson was supplemented by the use of pictures.
   (1) School B gained more after the lesson than school A, where pictures were not used, but less than school

C, where the pictures formed the basis of the lesson.

(2) School B's loss of retention was not so great as in school A, but greater than in school C.

(3) The final gain shown by school B was greater than that of school A, but not so great as school C.

3. School C, where pictures formed the basis for the lesson.

(1) School C shows a greater gain after the lesson than school A, where pictures were not used, or school B, where the lesson was supplemented by the use of pictures.

(2) School C shows a gain in retention at the end of the week, while both the other schools show a loss.

(3) The final gain for school C is much greater than in schools A and B.

The writer recognizes certain weaknesses in the present study. At the same time we wish to direct the reader's attention to the fact that objective studies in the teaching of geography are relatively scarce. One of the most serious criticisms of the study is the use of the same test for measuring the gain and retention. The writer realizes that practice effect does enter in and for this reason another form of the same test should have been substituted. However, the equalizing of two forms for the same test would require a much more elaborate study than this one purports to be.

This investigation, however, points out very clearly that pictures are an effective aid in the teaching of geography in the elementary grades, that the verbal instruction supplemented by the visual impression is of greater value than the verbal alone, and that the visual impression contributing to and forming the basis for the verbal is the most effective way of teaching geography.

THE CLEARING HOUSE

ORIGINAL MELODIES

"Eager response" is what we, as teachers, seek most earnestly, perhaps. We strive to get it in various ways, with varied degrees of success. Many of us know the joy of saying to a group of expectant children, "Let's do this or that," but, better still, "Let's make" something. Make what? Well, in this day of so-called "classroom projects," suggestions are not lacking. In history or geography, "Let's use our large table and make a desert scene with Arabs watching their flocks"; "Let's make a Japanese Garden"; or, "Let's make a scene in the great north woods, with a lumber camp in full swing." The words, "Let's make," seem to work like magic. Interest is kindled. The thing grows. Each child contributes something. The teacher steps into the background. Boys and girls are soon absorbed in the joy of creating something entirely their own.

In a fifth grade class at the Gresham School we often say, "Let's make a little song." In fact, our interest in writing original melodies has grown into a sort of hobby. Our first efforts, of course, were extremely simple, but as time passes we occasionally quite surprise ourselves.

We began by talking about composers and wondering just how they set about making a so-called "tune." We compared makers of songs with makers of buildings and bridges, and decided that successful makers of anything must observe certain established rules. Any structure requires a firm foundation, also must be finished perfectly in every detail—in other words, must begin well and end well. This line of thought leads us to think of the bird as a builder. He places a few firm twigs to begin with. To these he attaches his finer material, weaving into the nest all the joy and beauty of the springtime, then deftly and daintily adds the final touch, and behold! the task is done, and he may justly be proud of it.

With these thoughts in mind, we examined a number of songs in our books and found that the composer, like the bird, began firmly and boldly perhaps, with *do, mi,* or *sol.* Limiting ourselves to a choice between these three notes as a beginning, we experimented for a while, with little four measure songs, in 2/4 time, using any of the simple keys. *Ti-do, re-do,* and *sol-do* became the most popular endings. Of course, no song was accepted unless the writer was able to sing it correctly.

This sort of thing busied us for a while. The more ambitious children tried various combinations of quarter notes and eighth notes, which gave added interest.

However, the whole idea was a bit too mechanical, and we decided that, after all, a maker of songs must be a very different person from the house builder or the bridge maker. Like the maker of the stories we love best, the song maker must have spirit, imagination, little bubbles of enthusiasm all his own. He is a keen observer, he loves nature, and listens with sensitive ear to songs of birds, the brook, and the wind in the treetops. These are the things he tells us about in his songs. His message is sometimes happy, sometimes sad or lonely, according to his mood, but always beautiful. Then said we, "Let's make some songs that really mean something."

Next morning, when music time came, several delighted children had short melodies to present to the class for criticism. Many of these seemed too short really to "tell a story," so we decided to try repeat-

ing our little phrase, using a first and second ending. This repetition gave us an eight-measure song which seemed to satisfy our pride more than the shorter ones with which we had begun. Soon Mother Goose Rhymes were being set to music. The more gifted children made their own little verses and tried setting them to appropriate melodies.

Anniversaries of all sorts furnish inspirations for the young composer. Hallowe'en approached. We examined seasonable songs in our books to see how they differed from Christmas songs or songs for any other special occasion. We at once noticed the frequent use of *la* and several unusual intervals which made them sound nice and "spooky." Very little more was said before Evelyn brought in a little melody illustrating the use of *la* and the weird interval *la-do*.

In direct contrast to this, Winifred, one of our gifted little girls, made a butterfly song, very light and airy. This required quick movement and brought in eighth notes nicely. The other children assisted in setting words to the music.

At first we worked out our songs together as a class lesson, but now we give them for home study, and feel that the time on our program allotted to "Original Melodies" has been profitably spent. The more interested pupils try always to make their work interpretive or illustrative, but with the average child we are quite content if his song is correct as to key and rhythm. Like any other work, song writing might become monotonous, so we never ride our hobby too hard. But when the teacher says, perhaps once a week or once every two weeks, "Let's make songs tomorrow," she is sure of "eager response."

VIOLET HAMMOND,
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GOOD HEALTH CAFETERIA

One of the many problems confronting the classroom teacher is that of dealing with the underweight child. It probably is true that most teachers have, in a general sense, some knowledge of what the physical condition of the child should be, which of course includes a knowledge of the relationship between height, age, and weight. But this knowledge in most cases is based upon the general appearance of the child, rather than upon an accurate study of the individual.

The teacher can do a great deal toward remedying the underweight problem. Yet, the problem is one in which, from necessity, the school and the parents must coöperate, if any worthy results are to be accomplished. The teacher's problem is to stimulate interest in the child, to create a desire to establish proper health habits, and also a knowledge of what those health habits should be. The parent's problem is to create the situation in which these proper health habits can be established. Yet in many homes the parents possess little knowledge of the real causes of underweight, and how they may be overcome.

In order to meet this particular deficiency, the teacher in this situation sent two prepared sheets home to the parents of each underweight child. One of these sheets was an outline in which the chief causes of underweight were discussed, and detailed instructions were given as to the health habits which should be established, the food habits which should be cultivated, general directions as to preparation of foods, and attractive ways in which they may be served to tempt the child. The other sheet was prepared by the Michigan Tuberculosis Association and contained six complete menus for breakfast, dinner, and supper, as well as an enumeration of foods rich in vitamins A, B, and C, and how each was necessary for proper growth; also the

foods containing calcium, phosphorus, and iron contents were listed. Through this means the parents were provided with an easily accessible means of knowledge as to the steps to be taken at home to aid in the overcoming of the underweight problem.

It is obvious, of course, that securing the coöperation of the parents was only part of the problem. The real work of the teacher is to lead the children through an activity in which they themselves realize their own individual problem of underweight, and to stimulate an interest and desire to overcome it, and also provide a knowledge of health habits. The following is a record of an activity which resulted from the weighing and measuring of the children in the first grade room at the beginning of the school year.

This activity was commenced in September. In January, a simple questionnaire was sent home to the parents of each child who was underweight, the idea of which was to find out what the child had done at home to gain in weight. We found that three children had had medical attention recently, six children were sleeping longer hours, four children were spending more time out of doors, six children were eating more freely of fruits and vegetables every day, ten children were drinking more milk, and four children were taking cod liver oil regularly.

ORIGIN OF ACTIVITY

Life situation stimulating children. We found 50% of the children of this room were from two to ten pounds underweight. We talked about it during our conversation period and decided it would be a fine idea if all underweights could get up to normal weight before they left the first grade. One day, the teacher said, "How would you like to take a walk through the building, and see all the things we have?" The children were delighted, so we made a tour of inspection. We visited the cafeteria, and spent a great deal of time there. We let the children ask questions, and those who were frequent visitors of the cafeteria answered them, or, if they couldn't, the teacher did.

After we got back to our room we asked if anyone had seen anything that we could build in our playroom, and someone suggested a library, and someone a cafeteria. We then asked which one would be more of a help to our underweights and, of course, they said a cafeteria; so we immediately began to plan our "Good Health Cafeteria."

Stimulation by teacher to broaden views and raise standards. The teacher bought several large colored posters from the Michigan Tuberculosis Association. One was a picture of a little girl playing out of doors, and underneath the picture it said, "Play Out of Doors—Air and Sun Bring Happiness." Another was a picture of a little boy sleeping, and printed on it was this, "Open Windows—Plenty of Sleep Help You Grow Big and Strong." Another was a picture of a little girl eating the right kinds of food, and underneath that picture was printed "Milk, Vegetables, Fruit Build Strong Bodies." A group of posters called "Did You Know the Three Bears of the Fairy Tale Lived According to Good Health Rules?" were found. We also found pictures that corresponded with the eight health rules. These were posted in our cafeteria. It was suggested that the children look through magazines and find health pictures for the charts and for the cafeteria.

Dominant leads and suggestions for future activities. We had many dominant leads and suggestions for future activities. Someone asked where all the food we eat comes from, so a farm project or a transportation activity could easily be developed from our present activity.

ACTIVITIES EMBODYING EXPERIENCES IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Home, school, civic or industrial life. The children made a cafeteria, and played in it. They brought all material used in the cafeteria, such as pictures of various kinds of food. Some boys with the help of a janitor made a cash register, others covered an old barrel with white paper and used it for drinking water, while others made forks, knives, spoons, glasses, and milk bottles. Each child made an attractive tray.

The class as a group made posters using bright colored pictures. One poster showed what a good breakfast was, another showed what a good lunch was, and another showed what a good dinner should be. Each child made a simple health book and put the letter "H" on the cover.

We played in our cafeteria. One child would choose a good breakfast, another a good lunch, another a good dinner, and then everyone had an opportunity to decide if a well-balanced meal had been chosen.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Health: physical and mental. The children were weighed every two weeks, and individual graphs were kept for the underweights.

They kept the cafeteria clean, dusting the counter, and replacing the food. The children washed their hands before playing.

We talked about the meals that the children had in their own homes. We also discussed the eight health rules. Morning inspection was required. Cleanliness of body was stressed as well as cleanliness of food, and much attention was given to posture. The health habits were taught in relation to real situations. When some child would sneeze or cough, attention was called to the fact that he didn't cover his mouth or turn his head.

Games and play with apparatus. In our playroom we had rhythms of running, walking, hopping, and jumping for physical exercise. We played "Did You Ever See a Lassie?" We made use of the good health habits, such as cleaning fingernails, washing and combing the hair. Many other games were played including "My Pigeon House" and "A Turkey Ran Away." "This is the way we brush our teeth, comb our hair, walk to school," were acted out to the tune of "Here We Go Round the Mulberry Bush."

ARTS

Fine and industrial arts. Each child made a simple health book and cut the letter "H" and put it on the cover. Before making our cafeteria, we made a study of our work room and decided how we should arrange our furniture. We found attractive pictures and used them on our trays, in our books, and on our charts. The children made clay fruits and vegetables and colored them.

SCIENCE

Nature study. Two children brought two lovely plants to be put on the window sills in our cafeteria, and they took care of them. Another child went to the woods one Sunday and found some Michigan holly. She thought it would look nice on our table, so she put it into a vase and brought it to school. We discussed the work of the farmer, grocer, milkman, and butcher, and what they did for us. We talked about the rain, sun, wind, and trees, and what they did for us.

Use of number. The children made a price chart, and the teacher printed it. They wanted to use the same prices for the food that were charged in the big cafeteria. They could read this price list. The children were given money and they paid for the food that they got in the cafeteria.

They counted the five-cent dishes first, and paid for them, and then paid for whatever cost more or less than five cents. They counted knives, forks, spoons, and trays.

In weighing the children, we played a little game. While they were standing on the scale, the teacher showed them just what would happen if they lost or gained. The underweights know about their graphs. They know that if the line goes up they have gained, and if it goes down they have lost.

ENGLISH

Language. During our conversation periods, we discussed all phases of our health program. We named our cafeteria the "Good Health Cafeteria." We talked about the pictures made and used, and criticized them for their good and weak points.

Literature. The following stories were read to the children by the teacher: "The Little Girl Who Would Not Eat," "Clean Peter," "The Laughing Water, and Princess Cleanliness," and *Brownies' Health Book.* Many poems from *Poems for the Children's Hour,* and *Silver Pennies* were read.

Reading. We made chart stories of our health activity. The following is an example of one of our stories. "We visited the cafeteria to-day. We had a good dinner. We all had milk to drink. Some of us had soup to eat. Some of us had potatoes to eat. We brought our bread and butter from home. We all had ice cream. We liked our dinner. We want to go to the cafeteria again some time."

We get a different set of library books each week. The children are very much interested in them.

Writing. The children cut the letter "H" for their books, and after that they asked if they couldn't learn to write the letter "H." They have been working on writing their names, and most of them can write their first name.

OUTCOMES—HABITS, SKILLS, KNOWLEDGE, OR INDICATIONS OF APPRECIATIONS IN REGARD TO POWER TO CONTROL SITUATIONS

Social studies. The children are more courteous to each other. They do not interrupt when some one else is talking. As a group, they are working together much better. They have learned to study their own problems. This makes them more independent, and gives them a feeling of responsibility.

Language. We have better oral expression. Many have overcome timidity, and join in during the conversation period. They are all talking in a clear, distinct manner, and are gaining in ability to answer questions without bringing in a lot of other subject matter.

Number. Most of the children can recognize numbers from one to ten. Using the method described in a preceding paragraph, most children when given 25 cents divided into two nickels, one dime, and five pennies, can choose a very good lunch and pay for it accurately, and count the change that is left. They know that two nickels make a dime, and that five pennies make a nickel. They have learned that meat costs more than milk or potatoes, and soup and vegetables cost more than bread and butter. They are beginning to recognize page numbers more quickly.

Reading. The children enjoy their chart and primer stories very much. Most of them can recognize words and phrases very quickly. They have gained in ability to read silently, to answer questions, and to read aloud to give pleasure. They are reading more clearly, and making themselves heard by the entire group. Particular attention was given to reading habits stressing correct pronunciation and distinct enunciation.

Writing. With two exceptions, everyone in this group can write his first name. They judge their own work very well. Most of them show pride in doing their work well. Their writing shows better movement, better slant, and better letter formation. They have learned to keep rhythm.

Nature study. They know something of the work of the farmer in the fall of the year. They know that apples and peaches come from trees, and that carrots and potatoes come from the ground. They also know the work of the rain, sun and wind, and have learned a little about what certain animals do for us, such as the cow gives us milk. The children take turns in caring for the plants in the room. One of our plants will be in blossom soon, and they are anxiously watching it.

Motor skills. With the help of one of the janitors, the boys made a very good cash register. Their pictures show better planning, and better coloring. The teachers see a great improvement in their movement when writing. Their cutting shows better control of the use of the scissors. All the children in this room dress themselves in the morning. All but a very few can change their shoes very quickly, and tie them. When we had lunch in the big cafeteria, most children showed considerable skill in handling dishes and silverware.

Reasoning, judging, planning. The children are showing better reasoning. They didn't like the sink to show in the cafeteria. One child said that he thought a screen would cover it up, so we found one and made use of it. It was decided that about five children could play in the cafeteria at one time. It didn't take them long to find out that planning their work ahead of time was the worthwhile way. They did their work better, and saved time. Our drinking fountain was made out of an old barrel. The children didn't like it because it wasn't white, so they thought about it, and decided that it would take too much paint to cover it, so they finally covered it with white paper, which made it look very sanitary.

HEALTH

Physical and mental. All of the underweights are gaining in weight. The children are drinking milk instead of tea and coffee. They know what a good breakfast is, what a good lunch is, and what a good dinner is. They know that they should observe the following health rules:

Eat fruit and vegetables every day.
Drink plenty of water.
Drink plenty of milk.
Sleep with windows wide open.
Sleep long hours.
Brush teeth at least once a day.
Wash hands before eating.
Wash hands after going to the toilet.
Take a bath at least once a week.

The teacher sees better position in sitting and standing while reading. The children do not moisten fingers to turn pages.

AESTHETICS

Music. The children are doing much better in their music work. They are learning to sing with sweet, soft voices. They know that when one person sings it is called a solo; when two people sing it is called a duet; when three people sing it is called a trio, and that when four people sing it is called a quartet.

Art. Each child chose his own colors for his Health Book. They have difficulty in filling space, but they are doing much better. They enjoy good pictures, and they can tell very nicely just what they like about them. They are making their pictures more neatly, using lighter lines.

Literature. The children have become acquainted with good literature suitable for them. They can tell what they like

about stories, poems, and pictures. The story hour is enjoyed very much. Often they ask for the same stories over and over again. They are gaining in ability to retell stories, and relate their own experiences.

ETHICAL AND SPIRITUAL IDEALS

Beauties and wonders of nature leading to reverence. The children learned how nature protects all plant and animal life. They enjoy watering the plants and watching them grow. Many cut flowers were kept in fresh water. As long as possible, they brought cut flowers for our table. Several children remarked how well mother liked cut flowers on her dining-room table to make it look more attractive. They all agreed that flowers on our table in the cafeteria made it look more homelike.

Adjustments to life, behavior, habits and attitudes. The children learned to play in the cafeteria very quietly, without annoying others who had something else to do. They also learned that they must wait their turn and not push or crowd. They are taking better care of things that do not belong to them. They are trying hard not to talk when someone else is talking, and are more willing to help and share with others.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS IN FULFILLING LIFE RELATIONSHIPS

Home membership. The parents were very much interested in our health work and many came to school to see what we were doing. We had interesting talks with different mothers. They told things that would help us to understand their children better. The parents informed us that their children spent much time looking through magazines for material that we used in our cafeteria. We found that many things that we talked about and stressed were carried over to the home life of the child. We decided that if each person kept all the health rules, our school and home life would be much happier.

Citizenship. The children know that, if they are to be good citizens, they will always try to do the right thing, no matter where they happen to be. They know that we must take care of things that belong to others, and be willing to share with others. The children have learned that when eating out, they must conform to rules. An excellent example of good citizenship was brought out the other day in our room. We received a lovely letter from one of the mothers in our room. She asked that we send some little boy or girl home with her little girl each noon as her guest for lunch. She wanted some child that the teacher knew of who wasn't getting enough food during this unemployment period.

Vocational (school life). The children are playing very nicely together. They are playing more quietly and are more courteous to one another. Our visit to the real cafeteria gave them a better attitude toward other people. The day we had lunch together in the cafeteria, some of the other teachers happened to be there and they helped the children with their trays. They liked this very much. A feeling of friendliness was established.

Leisure or recreation. The children are making better use of their leisure time. Most of them can always find something to do to keep them busy after they have finished doing the work assigned. We notice that they are playing in groups out at recess. We have also noticed that most of the children who stay at school spend part of their time in the library looking at books. A few children in this room already have library cards.

Ethical and spiritual. The children have a love for God, and know that he is the giver of all that we have. They love the story of the "First Thanksgiving."

The children are getting along much better. They know that they have to play fair or their other little playmates won't like them or let them play in the group.

INDIVIDUAL RESULTS NOTED

Since this activity began, eight children have gained so that now they are up to their normal weight, and four children have gained so that they are within three-quarters of a pound of being up to their normal weight. Whenever a child gets up to his correct weight, he is allowed to take his weight graph home.

At the beginning of the year, we could get Dorothy to talk but very little, and even then we couldn't understand her. She was very shy, and would not mingle with the other children. At recess time she would stand alone somewhere near the school building. Her vision was very poor, and she had many speech defects. Since that time we have seen a wonderful change in her. We had the school nurse examine her eyes, and she found them to be very bad, so she visited the home and talked with the mother. They immediately had her eyes fitted with glasses. Very soon after that, she began to do much better work. The teacher encouraged her all she could, and was especially careful about commending her every time she did something well. With the help of the speech teacher, who did some wonderful work with Dorothy, we are now able to understand what she is saying when she reads and talks. She can make herself heard by the entire group. Even the other children remark about how well she is doing in her reading. Dorothy has more confidence in herself, and is much happier. Now she plays with the other little girls and is doing very good work.

Jack came to school one day, and said that his mother tried to give him coffee for his breakfast that morning, but that he wouldn't drink it. He told her that the children in his room were not drinking coffee and tea any more.

For a long time Ross came back to school at noon with dirty hands and face. His mother works, and isn't home during the noon hour, so, with the help of a sister, he gets his lunch and then comes back to school usually without washing. We showed him what dirty hands did to books, and also let him look at himself in the mirror several times. Now he comes to school every afternoon with clean hands and face. He is so proud to think that he remembers to wash them, that he calls our attention to it almost every day. He is beginning to feel more responsible for himself.

This activity has proved to be a worthwhile project. It is only one of the many activities which might be used to promote interest in establishing good health habits.

MARGARET DUIVEN,
Burton School,
Grand Rapids, Mich.

THE USE OF SUPERVISORY BULLETINS IN LOS ANGELES[1]

TO ALL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS,
MR. LANE'S DISTRICT

Dear Friends:

This is bulletin No. 15, the seventh in a series of reports on teachers visited.

School—Eastman Street
Teacher—Mrs. Winifred McDill Collins

[1] Mr. Robert H. Lane, Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Los Angeles, has recently been making systematic use of a supervisory technique that might well prove of value elsewhere. This consists in following up a visit to the classroom of a successful teacher with a bulletin addressed to all the principals of the district. A sample of these bulletins appears here. In addition to its use in a meeting of the principals, the bulletin was made the basis of a conference between the teacher and the principal of her building. It often happens that teacher and principal also confer with Mr. Lane. The report is usually gone over by a member of the Course of Study Division. It is sometimes discussed also by the principal of the school in a meeting of all of his teachers.—Editor.

Teacher Rating—"Superior" by principal and district superintendent
Date—March 23, 1931

The Background

Mrs. Collins has had this class since September, first as A2's and now as B3's. It is a very average class of American children. Mid-term intelligence quotients and reading grade-placements were as follows:

I.Q.	
121–125	3
116–120	1
111–115	3
106–110	5
101–105	4
96–100	7
91– 95	6
86– 90	2
81– 85	3
76– 80	1
	35
Median	99

Reading grade	Placement
3.5	4
3.4	2
3.3	1
3.2	4
3.1	2
3.0	2
2.9	2
2.8	2
2.7	5
2.6	1
2.5	2
2.4	5
2.3	1
2.2	2
	35
Median	2.8

The Room

The room is seated with primary tables and chairs. The tables are in two blocks, one of nine tables near to and parallel with the windows, the other block of ten tables parallel and close to the blackboard. The teacher's desk is in the rear of the room in one corner. Between the table-blocks are two primary tables placed together for a browsing table unit, equipped with a large collection of supplemental books for easy reading. Under the windows is a small painting table and near it a green bookcase containing library books on China and Japan. In the front of the room near the windows is the large Japanese house which has been the center of the children's activities on Japan. It is about five feet square and consists of a simple wooden frame rising in a peaked roof covered with "tiles" made of rolls of paper. The lower walls of the house are made of beaver board and above the wainscoting are Japanese bamboo screens. Inside the house are a bookcase containing Japanese vases, etc., a table and many floor mats. Cherry and wistaria trees in tubs stand in front of the house, together with three small miniature Japanese gardens.

In the front of the room, near the door, four primary tables have been placed together and covered with oilcloth to serve as a work table. In the center of the room, just behind the browsing table, there is a simple home-made work-bench equipped with a few necessary tools.

Over all the blackboards are posters of Japanese life made by the children; above the front board are Japanese drawings made by the children; on the side wall are headdresses, shoes, kimonos, and other objects illustrating Japanese life which have been made by members of the class.

Books

As noted above, the browsing table is well equipped with a large number of easy supplemental books. In addition the teacher is using for her Japanese activity the following titles in sets of 10 to 15 copies: Yule, *In Kimono Land*; Perkins, *The Japanese Twins.*

9:00 A.M.

Each table monitor reported the names of absent children. The children reported on their health charts, saluted the flag, and sang "America."

9:10 A.M.

The class broke up into groups and procured their materials, which are kept in individual manila paper bags. The following occupations were noted:

1. Two boys at the workbench making birdhouses for the Japanese gardens.
2. A boy making a Japanese bookcase.
3. A boy drawing a Japanese scene on the back of a discarded window shade.
4. A large group of girls sewing on kimonos.
5. A boy reading quietly at the browsing table.
6. Three girls weaving on two large wooden looms.
7. A boy painting book-ends at the painting table.
8. A group of girls mounting reading material which has been developed from the activity on small cards for individual seat work. These are called "reading games."

The teacher moved around among groups and individuals, giving help and suggestions where needed. The reading material noted above is in constant use by the children, who are given credit on a wall chart for the successful reading of each card. Some of these cards read as follows:

(1) 1. Draw a bowl of rice.
2. Draw a Japanese tray.
3. Draw Japanese chopsticks.
4. Draw a Japanese cupboard, etc.

(2) Put a blue circle around the Japanese names—Haru Masoki John Bot Chan Betty Mitsu Igazo Kika.

(3) Take your *Japanese Twins* book.
Read the first story.
Write down the name of that dear little Japanese baby.
Is he a little like an American baby?

(4) 1. Write a story about spring time.
2. Write a story about Fujiyama.
3. Write a story about a carp.
4. Write a story about a parasol.
5. Write a story about cherry blossoms.
6. Write a story about a Japanese bridge.

(5) If you took a trip to Japan what would you like to see?
Write me a letter and tell me that you have just taken a trip and you want to tell me all about it.

During this period the children talked freely but very quietly and in low voices to each other. There was no "lost motion," no idling, no confusion, and no interference on the part of one group with the others. While the room seemed very quiet compared to many activity rooms, it appeared to be the quiet that comes from good breeding rather than from repression.

9:55 A.M.

Material gathered up and put away.

10:00 A.M.

Recess.

10:10 A.M.

During this second hour work is of the more formal type—group reading with the teacher, reading and language games at the seats. The reading group this morning was reading and discussing with the teacher Yule's *In Kimono Land.* The conference period, which is such a vital part of the activity program, comes in the afternoon in Mrs. Collins' schedule.

Evaluation.

There are many excellent features. Mrs. Collins' program, which follows, evidences careful planning:

9:00 to 9:10—Salute—Greeting—Clerical routine—Hygiene check-up
9:10 to 9:55—Activity period
9:55 to 10:00—Clean up
10:00 to 10:10—Recess
10:10 to 10:35—Slow group—*In Kimono Land* and *State Reader*
Average group—Browsing table, books
Strong group—Seat work
10:35 to 11:00—Average group—*In Kimono Land*
Strong group—Seat work
Slow group—Browsing table
11:00 to 11:10—Recess

11:10 to 11:35—Strong group—*Japanese Twins*
Slow group—Browsing table
Average group—Seat work
11:35 to 12:00—Physical education and dismissal
12:00 to 1:00—Lunch
1:00 to 1:40—Spelling, penmanship, music, nature study based on activity
1:40 to 2:00—Evaluation of the morning's activity, which is an oral language period. Helps to organize for next day's activity
2:00 to 2:20—Suggestions by children on merits of library books other children might enjoy
2:20—Dismissal

Possibly the outstanding feature of this room is the apparent effortlessness which characterizes all of Mrs. Collins' work—there is a complete absence of muss, confusion, misplaced material, argument, and indecision as to what to do or how to do it which characterize some activity rooms. It is a twelve-cylinder machine hitting on all twelve, with plenty of reserve power. I suspect the secret is two-fold—the splendid poise of the teacher herself, together with very definite planning of her work.

Any child in the room seems willing and able to explain what is going on to the visitor, and this is done in a courteous and not effusive manner. The children have learned a great deal about Japanese life and are proud of what they know. There is a certain pride in the room which is reflected by all the pupils, and an observed code of behavior which stamps misbehavior and unnecessary noise as things which simply are not done. This is good citizenship in the best sense.

Questions which come to me are these: (1) Is the Japanese house over-elaborate? Is the "tiled" roof true to form, architecturally correct? Is the furnishing of the house as accurate as possible? Has a careful study been made of houses and house furnishings? (2) Would not oiled-paper sliding screens have been more truly representative of the Japanese house than bamboo screens? (3) Are the miniature gardens accurately designed? (4) Could there not have been fewer kimonos made and more "coolie coats" (such as the "rickshaw" men wear) and straw raincoats worked out so as to give variety and enrichment? (5) Are the "getas" or clogs accurately made? (6) Has a careful study been made of Japanese costume? (7) Has this activity passed the peak of its interest and should it not be replaced after the Easter vacation by something quite different? (8) Has the teacher critically examined the "reading games" devised by the children to assure herself that each is as perfect as possible?

I wish to express my great appreciation of Mrs. Collins' courtesy and coöperation in making this study and of the fine support in all of our undertakings which her principal, Mr. Enfield, always gives us.

Very cordially yours,

ROBERT H. LANE,
Assistant Superintendent.

EDITORIAL COMMENT AND REPORT

STANDARDS FOR THE PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN NEW YORK

In company with California, Indiana, and a few other states, New York is setting up definite standards for the certification of elementary school principals. After September 1, 1932, in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York, June 19, 1930, a principal's certificate will be required of all candidates for the elementary school principalship.

The regulations established by the Commissioner of Education to put the resolution of the Regents into effect are as follows:

1. On and after September 1, 1932, all elementary school principals shall be required to hold a principal's certificate issued under the authority of the Commissioner of Education.
2. For the purposes of administering this regulation the elementary school principal shall be known as "the administrative head of one or more elementary schools who has at least half his time free for supervisory work and is responsible for the supervisory direction of the instructional activities of other teachers."
3. The elementary school principal's certificate shall be of two grades—permanent and provisional.
4. These regulations shall not be retroactive. A permanent certificate shall be issued as of September 1, 1932, to all principals who are in service on that date, who have served continuously for a period of three or more years and who possess a teacher's certificate valid in the elementary schools; and to all other principals in service on that date who are recommended for certification by the employing superintendent.
5. The requirements for the permanent elementary school principal's certificate shall be:
   a. Graduation from a four-year approved high school course or equivalent.
   b. Graduation from an approved four-year college course with 18 semester hours of professional training, including history and principles of education, 6 semester hours; general and educational psychology, 6 semester hours; methods, observation and practice teaching, 6 semester hours; or graduation from an approved three-year normal school course plus 12 semester hours in approved courses; or graduation from a two-year normal course plus a minimum of 32 semester hours of approved work.
   c. In addition to the foregoing, a minimum of 30 semester hours of approved work with special emphasis on preparation for the elementary school principalship. This curriculum shall include:
      (1) A course or courses designed to give the minimum professional preparation, over and above that required of classroom teachers, needed for the administration and supervision of an elementary school. This course or courses should include the following subject matter:
         (a) The supervision of instruction in elementary schools
         (b) The curriculum of elementary schools
         (c) The problem child and individual differences
         (d) General administration
         (e) The administrative problems of the elementary school principalship
      (2) For candidates who have inadequate preparation and experience in elementary education, courses designed to give a broad and thorough grasp

of methods and subject matter used in the several subjects and grades of the elementary schools

(3) Practical contact with the work of the elementary school principalship. This experience may be gained through:

(a) An assistant principalship involving close contact with the instructional program of the school, or

(b) An apprenticeship under a successful elementary school principal or principals, or

(c) Extensive, organized, directed observation of the work of elementary school principals

(4) Electives. The balance of the 30 required hours shall be selected from any of the following fields that would contribute most to the well-rounded preparation of the individual for the elementary principalship:

(a) Additional courses in the administration and supervision of elementary schools

(b) Other courses in education, for example, philosophy of education, educational psychology, educational sociology

(c) Courses contributing to a general cultural background

(d) Courses in elementary education

d. Five years' experience in teaching or supervisory work, at least two years of which shall have been in direct contact with the general instructional work of elementary schools

6. The requirements for the provisional elementary certificate shall be:

a. Graduation from a four-year approved high school course or equivalent

b. Graduation from a four-year approved college with 18 semester hours of professional training (as enumerated above); or graduation from a three-year approved normal school course plus 12 semester hours in approved courses; or graduation from a two-year normal school course plus a minimum of 32 semester hours of approved work

c. Two years' successful experience in teaching or supervisory work. Experience as teacher, teaching principal, assistant principal, or general grade supervisor in elementary schools will be accepted. Experience as teacher of special subjects in senior high school or as teacher or supervisor of special subjects in junior or elementary schools may be accepted

d. This provisional certificate will be issued for five years and will not be subject to renewal

7. A certificate to a candidate for appointment will be issued only upon the written recommendation of the employing superintendent of schools.

The regulations were adopted after three years of study and discussion, participated in by the Research Division of the State Department of Education, the Council of Superintendents, various other educational associations, and the contributors to *New York State Education*. On September 15, 1928, a conference was called to draft standards. This was attended by representatives of the Superintendents' Council, the presidents of the two state teachers' colleges, the superintendents of schools in Buffalo and Albany, the State Director of Teacher Training, and the State Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education, Dr. J. Cayce Morrison, who has been the moving spirit and leader throughout. The tentative draft of standards prepared by this conference was submitted to the Superintendents' Council in September, 1929, and by this organization approved.

In anticipation of the official announcement of the standards, provision was made for a professorship at Buffalo State Teachers College for the purpose of developing courses for principals and a series of conferences with principals was held to dis-

cuss the proposed standards. The final conference arranged for was attended also by representatives of teacher-training institutions as well as by representatives of the State Department.

The purposes which these standards are intended to accomplish are set forth in a bulletin of the New York Education Department recently issued. In this bulletin the situation as to teacher training is briefly set forth, together with desirable objectives of a five-year curriculum. The technical preparation needed by principals is described and the opportunity for leadership which the office affords is indicated. The statement makes clear that this action of the State Education Department is inspired by a desire to foster a devoted professional spirit and contribute to the growth of high educational ideals. Certification of elementary school principals is shown to be merely a single feature in a long-term program for the improvement of the elementary schools of the state. This program has been most painstakingly thought out and, as it develops, will undoubtedly serve as an outstanding example of educational statesmanship.

J. F. H.

LIFE'S LITTLE STUPIDITIES

Among the many handicaps to good city school administration there are mentioned "politics," insufficient finance, public apathy and, in some cases, public antagonism. These are large and important issues constituting serious obstacles. Furthermore, they are often of such nature that the school authorities can do little about them.

One wonders, however, how much local and minor inefficiency in public schools is caused not by these major issues but by what might be called "Life's Little Stupidities." By this term we mean petty, trivial blunders which are ruinous to efficiency and, what is much more important, absolutely disastrous to teacher morale.

For instance, a city superintendent recently answered the request of a number of teachers who wished to attend a national convention involving one or two days' absence by saying that they might go if their work could be distributed among those teachers remaining in the building. Substitutes were available, competent and ready to work; they would be paid by the regular teachers, so it would cost the city nothing. This city, already on an economy program, is seriously overworking its high school teachers. To ask teachers already handling five to seven classes a day to take on one or two more is outrageous. Needless to say, the teachers did not attend the convention. This is not "politics," finance was not involved. It would seem to the casual observer to be just plain stupidity.

In another city the high schools were placed on a double shift so that one set of high school teachers was assigned from 10:30 or 11:00 to 4:00 or 4:30 o'clock instead of from 8:30 or 9:00 to 2:00 or 2:30 o'clock. That is, one shift had a later day than another. But the second shift going to work at 11:00 o'clock were required to check in as they had previously been doing at about 9:00 o'clock. There was no teachers' room in the building, the library was constantly crowded with children, there was nothing for these teachers to do except to hang around the halls, finding a place to read or study under constant interruptions. It would seem a thoroughly unnecessary waste of time and energy as well as a serious nervous strain.

In still another city a ruling was made which placed all substitute teachers on a sequential list regardless of qualifications. A teacher qualified and experienced in high school French was sent to fill the place of a

kindergarten teacher who fell ill. In this case the children and teacher could at least speak the same language. It is, however, quite possible, in fact very probable, that a kindergarten substitute may be sent to fill the place of a junior high school French teacher.

These are but three of two or three dozen instances recently collected.

W. H. B.

INVESTIGATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES

Those who are interested in the progress of the investigation of the social studies in the schools undertaken by the American Historical Association will find an excellent summary of the present status of that investigation by the chairman of the Commission, Professor A. C. Krey, in *The Historical Outlook* for October. From this source we learn that the work of the Commission has been organized into four divisions dealing with objectives, public relations, tests, and the organization of content and methods of instruction. It is expected that the program of investigation which the Commission is carrying on will be completed by the end of December, 1933. The statement of objectives in preparation by a sub-committee made up of Messrs. Beard, Bobbitt, Bode, Counts, Ford, Krey, Merriam, and Rugg will be available for limited circulation this autumn. Inquiries with regard to the subject should be addressed to Professor A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota.

CHAPTERS ON MENTAL HYGIENE

The Department of Child Guidance in the schools of Newark, New Jersey, is preparing a series of pamphlets on "Aspects of Mental Hygiene for Schools," which are published by the National Commission for Mental Hygiene, 450 Seventh Avenue, New York City. The titles so far announced are as follows: Mental Hygiene in the Classroom, Children Who Misbehave, Children Who Fail, and Children Who Are Timid. The pamphlets cost fifteen cents each.

THE OUTLOOK FOR RURAL EDUCATION

Following upon the publication, some months ago, of a yearbook on rural education by the National Society for the Study of Education appears a number of the Research Bulletin of the N. E. A. devoted to this subject. As in the case of previous issues of the Bulletin devoted to similar topics, a series of outstanding topics have been presented in outline form, together with tables, summaries, and annotated lists of references. Among the problems dealt with are: the unit of administration, financing, attendance, buildings and equipment, curriculum, teaching, and supervision. There is prominently displayed the recommendation of the First National Conference on Rural Education, held in Los Angeles last July, that a conference on rural education and culture be arranged for by the National Government after the manner of the White House Conference on Health and Child Welfare. Information as to the latter may be obtained through a report on Education and Training in Health presented to the National Council of Education at its February meeting. This is also published by the N. E. A.

ORGANIZATION FOR PROFESSIONAL STUDY

The organization for professional study of the teachers, principals, and supervisors of Oakland, California, is outstanding. It has been the custom in recent years to call upon persons frequently to act as chairmen of committees of teachers and others to engage in intensive study of various aspects of the curriculum. At the present time a large number of such committees are actively at work. A roster of them is re-

ported in the supplement to the Superintendent's Bulletin of the Oakland Public Schools for September 24.

THE GEORGE WASHINGTON CELEBRATION

Anyone not already familiar with the plans which are being made to celebrate the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the Birth of George Washington will do well to secure a copy of the program from the George Washington Bicentennial Commission, Washington, D. C. This is now in its third edition. It is intended for patriotic societies, clubs, schools, colleges, and other educational institutions.

The period covered is from February 22 to Thanksgiving Day, 1932. Celebration will be general throughout the country. While February 22 will be especially marked, Memorial Day, Flag Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, as well as other special days are to be devoted to this interest. In addition to the general program, the Commission has available a series of sixteen pamphlets dealing with Washington's personality and career, some twelve separate programs, a bibliography of books relating to Washington, and other materials. There is even a course of study entitled "George Washington Appreciation."

PLACE OF UNITS IN COURSE OF STUDY

As an aid in the revision program in progress in South Dakota, Dr. H. B. Bruner of Teachers College, the consultant, has prepared a bulletin on "The Place of Units in Course of Study Construction." In this he undertakes to distinguish six different types of course of study units and to illustrate them. These he names as follows: unplanned experience; purposeful experience not identified with any particular subject; a study aimed at a generalization; a unit in which the information or skill to be obtained is determined in advance; and subject matter units involving correlation.

The type of unit singled out for special attention is that referred to as having for its purpose the understanding of basic generalizations. This is described as a unit of understanding. The writer shows how to select and prepare the content of the unit, lists the types of activities in which the pupils may be expected to engage, and illustrates the appropriate teaching procedures.

Those interested should address Mr. E. C. Giffen, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Pierre, South Dakota.

CIZEK CHRISTMAS CARDS

The Austrian Junior Red Cross has issued a new set of Christmas cards, ten colored cards made by children 10-14 years of age, pupils of the world-renowned Juvenile Art Class of Professor Cizek in Vienna. The price of the set of ten cards is 27 cents, postage included. Orders should be addressed to the Austrian Junior Red Cross, 1 Stubenring, Vienna I., Austria.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CURRICULUM MAKING

The Bibliographer of the Society of Curriculum Specialists has prepared a classified list of titles in this field, covering the period from March, 1930, to March, 1931. Ten main heads are employed, as follows: (1) Curriculum Making; General; (2) Preliminary Steps; (3) Investigations of Curriculum Objectives; (4) Learning Activities; (5) Experimental Curricula; (6) Learning Activities in the Several Subjects; (7) Time Allotment and Grade Placement; (8) Providing for Mastery; (9) Selecting Learning Equipment; (10) Evaluation of Courses of Study. This is the third in the series of current references relating to curriculum making prepared by this society. Studies are issued in mimeo-

graphed form and are available through inter-library loan.

The compiler, Professor Henry Harap of Western Reserve University, points out that the chief emphasis for the year was placed upon objectives and this, he thinks, is promising. In general, however, the emphasis on the several topics was distributed about as in the preceding year. The general interest in the subject of curriculum making appears to be steadily maintained.

NEW BRITAIN SCHOOLS

Our Schools—Their Everyday Activities is the title of an illustrated booklet reflecting the work of the schools in New Britain, Connecticut. The legend, "A Progressive School System," was not needed. The pictures speak for themselves. The movable furniture, free grouping, and varied occupations of the pupils all testify eloquently to a new outlook and a new day for pupils in the public schools.

A CAMPAIGN TO OVERCOME THE MUTILATION OF BOOKS IN NEWARK

A persistent problem with all public libraries is that of book mutilation, particularly that which is traceable to irresponsible school children. At last something is being done about it in Newark which promises to put an effective stop to the worst of these ravages.

The leading article in a recent issue of *The Newark School Bulletin* was an apposite discussion of this problem entitled "The Bookworm's Little Brother." Here with good humor, backed up by facts and figures that allowed of no mistaking the seriousness of intention, was told the story of the epidemic of mutilations that has recently plagued the Library. In many of the most serious instances the activities of the Cutworm (as the article dubbed those who cut up books) were shown unmistakably to be the work of over-zealous students attempting to impress teachers who gave credit for notebooks illustrated with pictures cut from expensive books.

Following the diagnosis, there was suggested a remedy. The writer of the article proposed that "Standards for illustrative materials in pupil notebooks . . . require evidence that they are not the result of any marauding activities." There followed a brief outline of the requirements embodying this general idea which had been evolved by the schools of Brookline, Massachusetts. Within a few weeks after the appearance of this article Mr. John H. Logan, Superintendent of Schools in Newark, sent to his principals the following letter which incorporated this suggestion:

To Principals:

The special attention of your teachers should be called to the article, "The Bookworm's Little Brother," in the March issue of the *Newark School Bulletin*. The problem of materials and illustrations clipped from library books and magazines is a serious one, and the schools must find some way of preventing the depredations described in that article.

It is suggested that the following regulations be put into effect wherever the use of illustrative material is encouraged by teachers:

"1. No illustrations or other material clipped or cut from *books* shall be accepted under any circumstances.

"2. No clippings from magazines shall be accepted unless the teacher is fully satisfied that the magazines from which they were taken were valueless for any other purpose and belonged to the pupils or had been set aside by the school for clipping.

"3. Where illustrative work is desirable, teachers can encourage original work, such as cartoons, diagrams, time lines, progressive charts, graphs, maps, etc. Not too much of the work should be sought, and emphasis should be placed on fitness and thought content, rather than on artistic quality."

Very truly yours,
JOHN H. LOGAN.

THE READER'S GUIDE

PSYCHOLOGY OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Messrs. Pyle and Wheat, in their recent volumes dealing with elementary school subjects,[1] agree in one thing—both stick pretty close to the three R's and neither thinks it necessary to apologize for giving a partial view of the psychology of the elementary school. So far as these books represent it, the "common school" has no responsibility whatsoever for the arts—fine, industrial, or literary—nor for elementary science. The former covers exactly the curriculum of the colonial reading and writing schools; the latter adds social science, history, geography, and "behaviour."

They differ also in this: Mr. Pyle seeks only to present the principles of teaching reading and the other subjects that "have been scientifically established." Mr. Wheat is frankly the advocate of a cause. He seeks to present an alternative for the "traditional" program of formal instruction, on the one hand, and for the "activity" program of the reformers on the other. How far a writer trained in a particular school of thought can be a sober scientist while attempting to indoctrinate, each reader will decide for himself.

According to Wheat, all children should enter school at six. The kindergarten-nursery school movement he appears to regard as ill-advised. The first three years in school constitute the stage of childhood called social imitation. The next three, the stage of individualization. The third, period of awakening of social consciousness, and the next three, the beginning of specialization. These "natural" periods are regarded as the justification for organizing the schools into administrative units including three years each.

A school subject is a system of ideas, which must first be in the mind of the teacher in order that it may afterward be in the mind of the pupil. The teacher should teach these ideas by "calling attention" to them in the right way. When this is done, none of the evils that are now frequently said to result from causing a child to attempt to learn a subject already fully organized and thought out for him by some one else will result. What is meant by the "right way" is indicated more or less clearly in the chapters in which the several subjects are discussed.

The point of view from which the subjects are approached is that set forth by Judd, following Wundt, in his *Psychology of Social Institutions.* The doctrine of stages of development comes from the same source and from Hall. The references cited in connection with the various chapters are numerous, but they are largely on method and not on psychology. The book might well be called "Teaching Certain School Subjects." To those who are content to refine upon the procedures of the historic graded school, the book will appear modern and helpful. To others it will savor of rationalizing—an attempt to find convincing reasons for continuing to do what we are already doing. They would insist upon a different conception of the common school.

As in his previous works, Pyle gives us the results of painstaking research in the sources and his references are confined to them. Thus he fairly makes good his claim to present what is now known as to the

[1] *Psychology of the Common Branches.* By William H. Pyle. Warwick and York, 1931. *Psychology of the Elementary School.* By Harry G. Wheat. Silver, Burdett and Co., 1931.

learning of the "elementary skills" with which he deals. As a matter of fact, his treatment is comprehensive. He discusses not only the physiology and hygiene of reading but its value as well. Recent developments are reflected in his chapters on special difficulties and remedial work. He appends to each chapter suggestive questions for students and sums up the principles that he has explained. These are numbered consecutively and reach the grand total of one hundred and eighty. The elementary school teacher that masters these and learns how to apply them will be something of a scholar! The most grateful aspect of this book is its invitation to scholarly study rather than merely the forming of naïve opinions.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Thorndike's *Human Learning*[2] comprises the Messenger Lectures, delivered at Cornell University. They make available in advance of their full and technical treatment the results of certain of the author's recent scientific studies. They may also serve to clear up numerous misconceptions concerning his psychological beliefs that have been given publicity. In a sense the lectures may be said to provide a critical review of current issues in educational psychology and a summary of Professor Thorndike's position with regard to them. Among these are whether the "laws of learning" are sufficient to account for all learning and of general application; the significance of the experiments that have been made with the "conditioned reflex"; the validity of the Gestalt theory, and the evolution of learning in mammals.

Professor Thorndike has not found it necessary to make any fundamental changes in his psychological principles. Those who are familiar with his three-volume work have his point of view in general and his chief doctrines. Readers of these volumes sometimes overlook the preface, however, in which the author's intention to limit the material presented to that relating to objective, verifiable phenomena is stated. Many of the implications of the facts and principles stated in the three volumes are now presented to the general public by the author for the first time.

The importance of this slender volume of lectures needs no comment. The lecturer is generally regarded as the chief authority in his field. His "laws of learning" have furnished forth many an otherwise bare and unappetizing pedagogical table. Authors and teachers alike have followed his lead in increasing numbers. They will profit by a careful reading of the Fifth Series of Messenger Lectures, in which much confusion is cleared away and the essential processes of human learning are clarified.

Professor Holley plays the more humble rôle of interpreter of the psychology of teaching to the beginner in the profession. As the general editor of the series to which his book[3] belongs says in his preface, the writer has laid a heavy hand on a wide range of studies in education in order to seize upon what would best orient the young teachers whom he had in mind. The emphasis upon such topics as individual differences, emotional reactions, and mental hygiene marks a distinct advance upon the older works in this field and greatly increases the usefulness of the book. As a whole it is a sound, readable introduction for those who have not studied psychology and so written as likely to arouse a permanent interest.

[2] *Human Learning.* By Edward L. Thorndike. Century Company, 1931.

[3] *Introduction to the Psychology of the Classroom.* By Charles E. Holley. D. C. Heath and Company, 1931.

PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL PRACTICE

Primary teachers who are looking for guidance in organizing and directing programs of activities will find Miss Stevens, of the Ethical Culture School, a helpful guide. She keeps the school as a whole in mind and brings together a rich fund of practical suggestions gathered from her own experience.[4] There is theory, to be sure, but not too much, and its application is made fairly clear. The subject is treated in three main divisions—the curriculum of the primary grades as a whole, typical activities presented one by one, and typical units of work described at length.

Third grade teachers will be interested also in the more thoroughgoing accounts of two units of work given by Miss Keelor and Miss Sweet.[5] These had to do with Indian life and the colonial settlements of the Dutch, and were developed in the Lincoln School of Teachers College in the year 1929-1930. The method of exposition followed is partly narrative and partly interpretative. That is, each unit of work is made to serve as an illustration of how units should be chosen and handled. In this respect these studies mark the advance which the Lincoln School is making in its experimentation with the curriculum. The technique of analysis of each unit that is used provides an excellent example.

EDUCATIONAL TABLOIDS

By means of a collection of brief summaries of principles relating to the various fields of human experience represented in the school course, the busy school administrator is to be apprised as to what o'clock it is. In a single small volume he can learn what the late Professor Bonser believed as to Industrial Arts, what Messrs. Williams and Brownell believe as to Health and Physical Education, Gates as to Reading, Dykema as to Music, and Reeder as to Geography.[6] The task of preparing such summaries requires skill in condensation and it is only fair to say that in the numbers of the series so far issued the writers have succeeded admirably. No doubt the superintendent will conclude that he is not so busy after all, and will examine some of the volumes mentioned in the bibliographies.

SIGNIFICANT ARTICLES

IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Before Articulation Group VI of the Department of Superintendence, Dr. J. Cayce Morrison of the New York State Education Department discussed the relation between general and technical education in the in-service training of teachers. He pointed out that the question is exceedingly complicated. Quotations from a number of authorities show a wide difference of opinion as to what is general education on the one hand and what is technical education on the other. In-service training is best regarded as adaptation to the job. At the present time, what is perhaps most needed is an integration of the ideals of general education as exemplified in liberal arts colleges with ideals of professional education as upheld by institutions for the training of teachers.

The speaker concluded his presentation with an analysis of the function of a state

[4] *The Activities Curriculum in the Primary Grades.* By Marion Paine Stevens. D. C. Heath and Company, 1931.

[5] *Units of Work.* By Katharine L. Keelor and Mayme A. Sweet. Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1931.

[6] *Industrial Arts for Public School Administrators.* By Frederick G. Bonser. *Health and Physical Education* (Elementary Schools); *Health and Physical Education* (Secondary Schools). By Jesse F. Williams and Clifford L. Brownell. *Reading.* By Arthur I. Gates. *Music.* By Peter W. Dykema. *Geography.* By Edwin H. Reeder. Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1930-1931.

education department in relation to the training of teachers. This function includes research, the setting up of standards, utilization of the best talent of the state, and integration of teacher training institutions with supervisory staffs in the field.

VALUE OF THE SUPERVISORY CONFERENCE

It has long been assumed that conferences of supervisors with individual teachers are of great value in supervision. Professor George C. Kyte, recently of the University of Michigan and now of the University of California, reports in *The Nation's Schools* for August data which tend to show somewhat objectively the actual values of this procedure. The method of the investigation was appeal to a group of competent judges. In accordance with the opinions expressed, such improvement was brought about as: greater emphasis on individual instruction, the use of problems more nearly related to life by the provision for activity on the part of the pupils, and the like.

MUSIC IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

A suggestive article on music for younger children is contributed by Miss Marie L. Burgess of the Rockridge School, Oakland, California, to *Childhood Education for September*. She entitles her article, "Majoring in Music in the Primary Grades." The immediate occasion for the experience which she describes was the failure of a high first and a low second grade group to get on in music and the attempt to make music an approach to an "activity." The children were asked to bring everything to school that they could find that would make music or a musical sound. The preparation of stage settings and the composition of songs with appropriate dances followed. The outcome was a rhythmic orchestra, to which was related a wide range of interests.

In the same journal for October will be found an excellent example of the teacher's diary of the work of a class of children. This was kept by a student teacher of the Hartford Avenue Kindergarten of Hartford, Connecticut. The period covered was about six weeks.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LISTS OF CHILDREN'S READING

A comparison of ten book lists of children's reading, made by S. C. Garrison and Lector Hackworth, will be found in the *Peabody Journal of Education* for September. The lists used were the following: Terman and Lima, Gardner and Ramsey, Curry and Clippinger, Twenty-Fourth Yearbook, American Library Association, Washburne and Vogel, Carnegie Library, Pratt Institute, Cowing, and Leonard. The writers conclude that there is marked disagreement as to what should be included in lists of children's reading for the elementary school; 4,342 titles in all were mentioned. The highest percentage of duplications was found in the third grade and the lowest in the first. The list containing the titles most often met with is that of Pratt Institute, and those least often, the Winnetka Graded List. The pressing need of criteria set up by scientific and experimental investigations for use by those attempting to make such lists is urged.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ACTIVITY PROGRAMS

A brief but highly suggestive statement of the principles by which activity programs should be guided appears in the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* for September. The contributor, Professor Ernest Horn of the University of Iowa, after commenting upon the vagueness of the term activity and taking the position that all activities in education must finally be judged by the same principle, namely, de-

velopment of the pupils, reduces the chief conclusions to two: the evaluating of an activity as an end and of the activity as a means. He would apply four criteria, as follows: (1) Does the activity duplicate the essentials of a desirable activity in life outside the school? (2) Do the methods and procedures used in connection with the school activity introduce the children effectively to the activity in life outside the school? (3) Do the materials used in connection with the activity either duplicate those used in carrying on the activity in life outside the school or at least represent those materials in a satisfactory way? (4) Are the results or outcomes of the activity satisfactory as measured by an increase in the ability to understand, appreciate, or carry on the activity in life outside the school?

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE WORKBOOK

In view of the rising tide of workbooks of all kinds, sizes, colors, and shapes, an article called "This Workbook Craze," in *School Executives Magazine* for September, from the pen of Superintendent A. W. Elliott of Mount Vernon, Ohio, is timely. The article is the report of a round table discussion of school executives who faced the question, "Where is this current workbook craze leading us?" The answer to the question reached by this group is enthusiastically favorable. It may be summed up in the following quotation: "The development of the workbook to its present state has been perfectly normal and there is no item in the evidence which warrants any aspersions toward either its ancestry or its past history."

SUPERVISION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

In *School Executives Magazine* for October, Principal F. L. Bacon of the Evanston Township High School presents a comprehensive program of supervision for the high school principal. He admits that in general the secondary school lags behind the elementary in the matter of supervision, and finds the cause largely in the lack of professional training of principals. He recognizes that the problems of supervision are somewhat different in the large high schools from what they are in small and middle-sized high schools. In the latter, department heads seldom have free time and hence can assume small amount of responsibility for supervision. The writer suggests the setting up of faculty projects, the utilization of measurements, and, most important of all, the development of standards. These can only result from studies carried on by high school principals as a group, who should pool their efforts and findings.

GIFTED PUPILS IN ENGLISH

In the *English Journal* for September, Miss Mabel C. Hermans of Los Angeles reports the results of an experiment with reading and self-expression by superior children in certain junior high schools. The investigation was based on research study of the writing of junior high school children, from which five criteria for evaluating thought content were derived, ranging from inarticulateness at one extreme to creativeness at the other. The judgment of the work of the pupils was given by five teachers, whose estimates are reported in terms of the several criteria. The writer thinks that the results were notable, particularly in a growing consciousness on the part of the pupils of their own processes of thinking.

THE NEW BOOKS

Developing Personality in the Child at School. By Garry C. Myers. New York: Greenberg, 1931. Pp. 375. $2.50.

The Elementary School—Its Organization and Administration. By W. C. Reavis,

Paul R. Pierce, and E. H. Stullken. University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. 571. $3.00.

The Psychology of School Music Teaching. By James L. Mursell and Mabelle Glenn. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1931. Pp. 378. $2.40.

Modern History. By Carl L. Becker. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1931. Pp. 850. Illus. $2.24.

Jean and Fanchon. By Virginia Olcott. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1931. Pp. 168. Illus. $.80.

Lecturas Fáciles. Revised Edition. By Lawrence A. Wilkins and Max A. Luria. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1931. Pp. 266. Illus. $1.44.

Zaragüeta. By Ramos Carrion and Vital Aza. Edited by Carlos Castillo and Agatha Cavallo. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1931. Pp. 153. Illus. $.96.

The Art of the Teacher. By P. F. Valentine. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1931. Pp. 289. $2.00.

Methods in Educational Research. By Frederick L. Whitney. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1931. Pp. 335. $2.25.

Adventures in English Literature. Edited by H. C. Schweikert et al. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1931. Pp. 1133. $2.20.

Teachers' Salaries. By Willard S. Elsbree. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1931. Pp. 286. $2.50.

Units of Work—Indian Life and the Dutch Colonial Settlement. By Katharine L. Keelor and Mayme Sweet. Lincoln School Curriculum Studies. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1931. Pp. 314. $2.20.

Geography for Public School Administrators. By Edwin H. Reeder. Pp. 100. $1.50. *Music for Public School Administrators.* By Peter W. Dykema. Pp. 171. $1.75. *Health and Physical Education for Public School Administrators—Secondary Schools.* By Jesse F. Williams and Clifford L. Brownell. Pp. 167. $1.75. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1931.

A Child's Third Number Book—Part One. By Saul Badanes. New York: Macmillan Co., 1931. Pp. 136. $.64.

The Elements of Classroom Supervision. By Milo B. Hillegas. New York: Laidlaw Brothers, 1931. Pp. 224 .

Our Clothing. By Josephine Worthington and Catherine V. Matthews. Dansville, N. Y.: Owen Publishing Co., 1931. Pp. 256. Illus. $.96.

Manual for First Grade Music. By Robert Foresman. New York: American Book Co., 1931. Pp. 154.

Creative Camping. By Joshua Lieberman. New York: Association Press, 1931. Pp. 251. Illus. $2.00.

The Social Studies in the Primary Grades. By Grace E. Storm. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1931. Pp. 596. Illus.

Health Horizons. Compiled by Jean Broadhurst and Marion O. Lerrigo. Newark, N. J.: Silver, Burdett and Co., 1931. Pp. 560. $3.00.

The Superintendent at Work in Smaller Schools. By R. V. Hunkins. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1931. Pp. 401. $2.00.

Statistical Tables for Students in Education and Psychology. By Karl J. Holzinger. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931. Pp. 101. $2.00.

The Hosic-O'Shea Speller. By James F. Hosic and M. V. O'Shea. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1931. Book One, pp. 123. Book Two, pp. 158.

Introduction to the Use of Standard Tests. By Sidney L. Pressey and Luella C. Pressey. Revised Edition. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1931. Pp. 266. $1.80.

Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary

Schools. By Elbert K. Fretwell. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. Pp. 552. $2.79.

The Junior College. By Walter C. Eells. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. Pp. 833. $4.00.

The Development of Character Traits in Young Children. By Amelia McLester. New York: Scribner's, 1931. Pp. 126. $1.25.

The March of Civilization—Ancient and Medieval World. By Jesse E. Wrench. Pp. 365; illus.; $1.80. *Modern World.* Pp. 486; illus.; $2.00. New York: Scribner's, 1931.

The United States of America—A History. By Thomas J. Wertenbaker and Donald E. Smith. New York: Scribner's, 1931. Pp. 712. $2.00.

Socialized History of the United States. By Charles G. Vannest and Henry L. Smith. New York: Scribner's, 1931. Pp. 694. Illus. $1.72.

The March of Civilization. By Jesse E. Wrench. New York: Scribner's, 1931. Pp. 847. Illus. $2.20.

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Current Practice in Coördination of College and Training School Work. By Noble Lee Garrison. Ypsilanti, Mich.: Michigan State Normal College, Education Department, 1930. Pp. 26.

The Schools and Business. Washington, D. C., National Education Association. Pp. 23.

Our Kindergartens. Seventy-first Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools of Milwaukee, Wis., June 1930. Pp. 100.

Reading with a Purpose: Scandinavian Literature. By Hanna A. Larsen. Pp. 45. *Short Story Writing.* By Blanche C. Williams. Pp. 44. *International Relations.* By Isaiah Bowman. Pp. 51. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Each, $.35.

A Fifth Grade Experiment in the Social Studies. By Alice C. Rodewald. New York: Ethical Culture Branch School, 27 West 75th Street, 1930. Pp. 38. $.40.

Ethical Extra. New York: Elementary Department, Ethical Culture School, 33 Central Park West, 1930. Pp. 62. $.65.

Books for Home Reading for High Schools. Prepared by Max J. Herzberg and Stella S. Center. Chicago, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1930. Pp. 111. $.20.

May Day—National Health Day in 1930. New York: American Child Health Association, 450 Seventh Avenue, 1931. Pp. 116.

The New Britain Schools—A Progressive School System. New Britain, Conn.: Board of Education, 1931. Pp. 67.

Report of the President of Columbia University for 1930. New York: Columbia University Bulletin of Information, December 27, 1930. Pp. 74.

A Syllabus for a Historical Introduction to the Study of Education. Part I: *Education as a Public Policy.* By Edward H. Reisner. New York: Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1931. Pp. 31.

Public School Finance and Taxation in Washington. By Orville C. Pratt. Seattle, Wash.: Service Bulletin, Washington Education Association, September, 1930. Pp. 31.

Literary Background Tests. Preliminary Section. By Conrad T. Logan and Carrie B. Parks. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1930. $.56.

Rapid Survey Test in Fractions. By Amy J. DeMay and William A. McCall. Forms 1, 2 and 3 and Directions. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929.

Standard Graduation Examination. By Arthur S. Otis and J. S. Orleans. Speci-

men set. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1930.

Haggerty-Olson-Wickham Behavior Rating Schedules. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1930.

Minnesota Reading Examination for College Students. By Melvin E. Haggerty and Alvin C. Eurich. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930.

Baltimore Bulletin of Education, No. 7, *Education and Vocational Guidance,* March, 1931. Baltimore: Bureau of Research, Board of Education; pp. 23.

National Education Association Research Bulletins: Vol. 8, No. 5, *Current Issues in Teacher Retirement,* November, 1930; pp. 54. Vol. 9, No. 1, *Ethics in the Teaching Profession,* January, 1931; pp. 89. Washington, D. C.: Research Division, National Education Association. $.25 each.

University of Illinois Bulletin, No. 53: *A Project in Fourth-Year English Composition.* By the Senior Class. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1930. Pp. 36. $.30.

Educational Measurements for the Class Teacher, No. 16: *The Ability of Children in Map Reading.* New York City: Board of Education, Bureau of Reference, Research and Statistics, November, 1930. Pp. 16.

Columbian Achievement Tests. Edited by L. C. Pressey. Test in each major subject for Grades 3-8. Published monthly by Columbian Test Service, 855 N. Nelson Road, Columbus, O.

Engle-Stenquist Home Economics Test. By Edna M. Engle and John L. Stenquist. Two forms, A and B of three different tests: Foods and Cookery, Clothing and Textiles, Household Management. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1931. $1.00 per 25.

The Assembly in the Teachers College. By a Faculty Committee. Trenton, N. J.: State Teachers College, Studies in Education, No. 1, March, 1931. Pp. 22.

Workbooks for Do and Learn Readers. By Margaret L. White and Alice Hanthorn. New York: American Book Co., 1931. *Workbook for Boys and Girls at Play—A First Primer;* pp. 64. *Workbook for Boys and Girls at Work and Play—Primer;* pp. 80. *Workbook for Our Friends at Home and School—First Reader;* pp. 80. *Workbook for Stories of Animals and Other Stories—Second Reader;* pp. 80. *Workbook for Interesting Things to Know—Third Reader;* pp. 80.

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Some Activities in the Houston Schools (1924-30). Houston, Texas: Board of Education, 1931. Pp. 106.

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Workbook to Accompany Nations as Neighbors. By Charles P. Sinnott. New York: Macmillan Co., 1931. Pp. 125.

Workbooks for Marywood Readers: *The Friends of Ours Workbook;* pp. 48. *The Tom and Ruth Workbook;* pp. 64. By Sister Mary Estelle. New York: Macmillan Co., 1931.

Pupils' Help Books in Geography—Book One. By B. H. Schockel, Mattie B. Fry, and J. E. Switzer. New York: American Book Co., 1931. Pp. 56.